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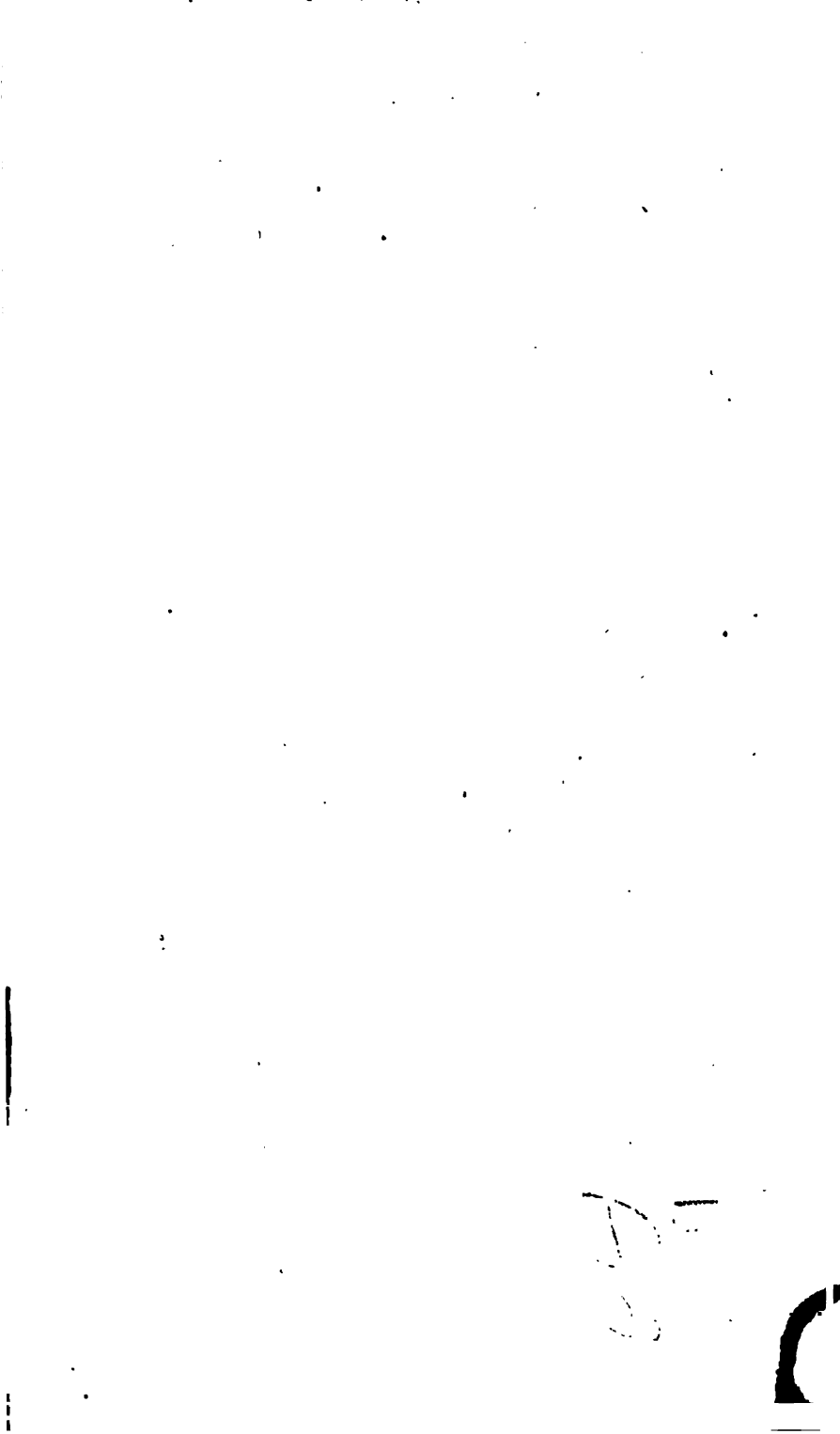

A

HISTORY

OF THE

COMMENCEMENT, PROGRESS, AND TERMINATION

OF THE

LATE WAR

BETWEEN

GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE,

WHICH CONTINUED

From the first day of February 1793, *to the first of October* 1801.

BY JOHN YOUNG, D. D.

MINISTER OF THE GOSPEL, HAWICK—AUTHOR OF ESSAYS ON GOVERNMENT, *&c.*

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HISTORY

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CHAP. XI.

Proceedings in Parliament—Marriage of the Princeſs Royal—Alarming Mutiny on board the Fleet at Portſmouth, and at the Nore—Steps taken by Government—Mutiny terminated—The Ringleaders tried, and executed—Landing of the French in Pembrokeſhire—Their Surrender—Victory of Sir John Jervis over the Spaniſh Fleet, and of Admiral Duncan over the Dutch—Other Naval Operations—Bombardment of Cadiz—Expedition againſt Teneriffe—Trinidad taken—Attempt upon Porto Rico—Skirmiſhes in St Domingo—Propoſal of raiſing ſome Black Regiments in the Weſt Indies.

DURING the year 1797, various events took place, which bore a very threatening aſpect towards Britain; and had not Divine Providence interpoſed, in

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a remarkable manner, muſt have been productive of the moſt diſaſtrous conſequences. The ſucceſs of the Imperial arms in Germany had been ſo much overbalanced by the progreſs of the French in Italy, that the Emperor was obliged to make peace with France, upon very diſadvantageous terms; ſo that Britain found herſelf deſerted by all her Allies. The death of the Empreſs of Ruſſia, and the whimſical character of her ſucceſſor, rendered it impoſſible to foreſee what line of conduct Ruſſia was to purſue. At home ſome things took place much more alarming than all the ſucceſs of our enemies abroad. But our fears were happily diſappointed: the aſpect of affairs gradually cleared up: The reſources of Britain were found equal to her demands; and, from this time forth, Britiſh valour ſhone out with more brilliance than in any former period. But not to anticipate—

The firſt thing of importance that engaged the attention of Parliament, after the debate about the breaking up of the treaty at Paris, was a Meſſage from his Majeſty, delivered to the Houſe of Commons on the 27th of February this year; bearing, that on account of the unuſual demands for ſpecie that had lately been made upon the metropolis, in conſequence of alarms in different parts of the country, his Majeſty, with the advice of his Privy Council, had thought it neceſſary to recommend to the Bank of England, not to iſſue caſh in payment until the opinion of Parliament ſhould be taken on the ſubject. This ſcarcity of ſpecie at the Bank, the minority affected to conſider as owing to the quantities that Miniſtry had ſent to the continent; and, without waiting till the Meſſage was taken into conſideration, Mr Sheridan made a motion immediately af-

ter

ter it was delivered, " That no further exportations of " ſpecie, or bullion, be ſent to the Emperor, or any other " Power, till the ſenſe of Parliament can be taken on " a full review of the ſtate of the country." But, after a long debate, it was negatived, by 240 againſt 77.

On the next day, when the meſſage was taken into conſideration, it was moved by Mr Pitt, That " a Com- " mittee be appointed to examine and ſtate the total a- " mount of the outſtanding demands on the Bank of " England, and of the funds for diſcharging the ſame; " and to report the reſult thereof to the Houſe, toge- " ther with their opinion of the neceſſity of providing " for the confirmation and continuance of the meaſures " taken in purſuance of the Minute of Council, on the " 26th inſtant." To this a vehement oppoſition was made on the part of the minority; who all profeſſed their confidence in the ſolidity of the Bank, though they conſidered the Order of Council as an act of bankruptcy on the part of Government; and declared, that if the Houſe perſiſted in confiding in Miniſters, our ruin was inevitable. They propoſed, as an amendment, That the Committee ſhould be appointed " alſo to in- " quire into the cauſes which had produced the Order " of Council." This being carried againſt them, Mr Fox moved the following Reſolution, " That it is the " duty of this Houſe to enquire into the cauſes that " have produced this extraordinary meaſure." This being agreed to without oppoſition, he next day made a motion, " That a Committee be appointed to inquire " into the cauſes which have produced the Order of " Council." This was rejected by a great majority, on the ground that the Committee already appointed was competent to every neceſſary enquiry; and it would be

abſurd to have two Committees ſitting at the ſame time, on the ſame buſineſs.

This Committee brought in their firſt Report on the 3d of March, the ſubſtance of which was, that they had found aſſets belonging to the Bank, exceeding the amount of demands that could be made upon it, by the ſum of £. 3,826,890. And on the 7th they preſented a ſecond Report, ſtating it as their opinion, That it was neceſſary to provide for the confirmation and continuance, for a limited time, of the Order of Council.

The ſame meſſage from his Majeſty having been laid before the Houſe of Lords at the ſame time, ſimilar proceedings took place in that houſe. The committee appointed by them brought in a long report, in which they entered very fully into the buſineſs. They impute the neceſſity for ſtopping the payment in ſpecie by the Bank to various cauſes combined; partly to the large remittances to the continent, for the Imperial loan, for ſubſidies to foreign princes, and for the pay and ſubſiſtence of our own troops; partly to the ſtate of exchange with Hamburg; but chiefly to a very extraordinary demand for caſh from different parts of the country, and from Ireland. This demand, they thought, was occaſioned, not only by the apprehenſion of an invaſion by the enemy, but alſo by the ſtoppage of payment in ſome country banks; and they were of opinion, that the order of Council ſhould be confirmed, and continued for a limited time.

The reſult of all was, that a bill paſſed both Houſes, allowing payments to be made in ſmall notes, by manufacturers and traders. A ſimilar bill for Scotland. A bill for allowing the Bank of England to iſſue notes in payment of demands made upon them, inſtead of caſh, purſuant

purſuant to the late order of Council; and a bill to enable the Bank of England to iſſue notes below the value of five pounds. All theſe received the royal aſſent as ſoon as the proper forms could be got through. And though their duration was limited to very ſhort periods; yet they had ſuch effect, that the country felt little inconvenience from the ſtoppage at the bank, compared with what was at firſt apprehended.

On the 3d of March Mr Whitebread moved for a Committee, to inquire into the conduct of adminiſtration, on the ſubject of the late attempt to effect an invaſion of Ireland. It was argued by him, and his brethren in oppoſition, that miniſters could not be ignorant of the ſailing of the French fleet from Breſt; yet they had been ſuffered to go and return, after ſtaying almoſt two weeks on the coaſt of Ireland, without any material injury, except from the elements; though we had upwards of ninety ſhips of the line in the European ſeas: that, if the weather had permitted them to land, they might have reduced Cork, the grand depot of naval ſtores, and ſo have brought our navy into great diſtreſs: and that in Ireland, there was no ſufficient force ready to oppoſe them.

To this it was anſwered, that Miniſtry were apprized of the French armament, and thought it deſtined either againſt Ireland, Portugal, or Gibraltar: That we had one fleet, under Admiral Colpoys, watching the harbour of Breſt, and another ready to relieve it: that the French fleet eſcaped from Breſt in a thick fog, and the ſame ſtorm that diſperſed them, rendered it impoſſible for Admiral Colpoys to keep his ſtation: that Lord Bridport hoiſted his flag the day before the intelligence arrived of the French fleet having ſailed; but that

that the ſame boiſterous weather which prevented the landing of the French, had prevented him from getting out to ſea; and that it was no wonder none of our men of war had ſeen the enemy's fleet, when their own commanders had never ſeen them during the voyage, except at their ſailing out of port. And, to prove all theſe aſſertions, a ſeries of papers was laid upon the table. Accordingly the previous queſtion, moved by Mr Dundas, was carried by 201, againſt 62. A ſimilar motion was made in the Houſe of Lords on the 16th, but was rejected by 94 votes againſt 15.

On the 21ſt of the month a motion was made, in the upper Houſe, by Lord Moira, for an "Addreſs to his "Majeſty, praying him to interfere, with his paternal "and beneficent care, to heal the diſcontents in Ire-"land, which might otherwiſe prove the greateſt in-"jury to his ſubjects in both kingdoms." Another motion to the ſame purpoſe, though in different words, was made by Mr Fox in the Houſe of Commons, three days after. On this ſubject the Minority ſaid, it was well known that great diſcontents did exiſt in that country, that the whole northern diſtrict was declared out of the protection of the law, and that fifty thouſand men were ſuppoſed ready for arms. And that parliament ſhould inquire into the cauſes of diſcontents, whether the people of Ireland had the benefit of conceſſions that had formerly been made, and whether proper meaſures had been taken to allay the diſcontents of the Roman Catholics, who were five-ſixths of the people of Ireland. To all this it was ſufficient to anſwer, that if the people of Ireland had grievances, it belonged to the parliament of Ireland to redreſs them: and for the Britiſh Parliament to interfere with their affairs, after

ſolemnly

ſolemnly acknowledging their independence, would be the moſt effectual method to increaſe their diſcontents. On this ground, the Motion was rejected in both houſes by a great majority.

Not yet weary of haraſſing Miniſtry on the ſubject of the late Negotiation, the Minority introduced a Motion in the Houſe of Commons, on the 10th of April, for an Addreſs to his Majeſty, "repreſenting, that it "appeared from mature conſideration, that his Majeſ- "ty's benign intentions in the late negotiation, had "been miſconſtructed by the government of France, "or unexplained to the French nation; and praying "him to adopt ſuch meaſures as might remove thoſe "miſconceptions and miſrepreſentations, relative to the "ſincerity of his Majeſty's Miniſters." In the other Houſe they went further. On the 24th of the month, Lord Oxford, having previouſly given notice of his deſign, and had their Lordſhips ſummoned for the occaſion, introduced a motion for a long addreſs to his Majeſty, recapitulating, after his manner, the circumſtances of the late negotiation, and praying his Majeſty to take every method, conſiſtent with the honour and ſafety of the country, to attain the bleſſings of peace. The arguments which were adduced, in ſupport of theſe motions, had been ſo often repeated, and ſo often refuted before, that the friends of adminiſtration ſaid very little. In the Houſe of Lords, Lord Grenville only deſired the addreſs of the Houſe on the 30th of December to be read. Both motions, as might be expected, were rejected by a great majority.

As there was a violent oppoſition to the Miniſtry in Parliament; ſo there was ſtill a diſcontented party in the country, who diſapproved every meaſure of Adminiſtration,

niſtration, and wiſhed for peace with France upon her own terms; eſpecially in the cities of London and Weſtminſter. Thoſe held meetings, for the avowed purpoſe of petitioning his Majeſty to diſmiſs his Miniſters; tho' they were obliged to comply with the reſtrictions of the late act of parliament. Encouraged by ſuch countenance from people without doors, the Minority in both Houſes of Parliament hazarded an attempt of the ſame kind. As early as the 27th of March, the Earl of Suffolk made a Motion in the Houſe of Lords, "That an "Addreſs might be preſented to his Majeſty, humbly "requeſting him to diſmiſs from his Councils his Mini-"ſter, the Firſt Lord of the Treaſury, whoſe pernici-"ous meaſures had deprived him of the confidence of "the country." It was not till the 19th of May that a ſimilar motion was made by Alderman Combe, in the other Houſe; but he carried the matter a little farther. He was for an Addreſs, "Beſeeching his Majeſty to "diſmiſs from his councils his preſent Miniſters, as the "moſt likely means of obtaining a permanent and "ſpeedy peace." The reaſonings on both theſe Motions were ſo much alike, that it was not thought neceſſary to mention them ſeparately. On the one ſide, Miniſtry were accuſed, with having plunged the nation into a war, which had no fixed object, which had added one hundred and thirty millions to the national debt, and brought the moſt preſſing calamities upon the people. They were charged with neglecting the moſt proper opportunities for making peace, and with inſincerity when they pretended to negotiate. To their meaſures were imputed all the diſcontents that were appearing in the navy, among the people of this country, and in Ireland; and it was foretold, that if ſuch meaſures were

were continued, thoſe diſcontents would increaſe, till at laſt they would burſt forth, and carry all before them.

On the other ſide, it was argued, that the country owed to the preſent Miniſtry the three greateſt bleſſings that a people could poſſeſs,—liberty, internal tranquillity, and general proſperity. That under their adminiſtration, juries had been inveſted with the power of judging of the point of law, as well as the matter of fact; that when Mr Pitt came into office, the funds were at ſixty-four, but, by his financial abilities, he had raiſed them to ninety-eight, before the war broke out; that, even during the war, our trade, manufactures, and agriculture, had continued to flouriſh; that it was impoſſible for miniſters to avoid entering into the war; that tho' the ſucceſs of our allies had not been what we might have deſired, yet, as for ourſelves, our ſucceſs, as well as our exertions, had been unparalleled. In a word, it was urged, that we were indebted to the exertions of the preſent miniſtry, for ſtopping the progreſs of French principles among us; for our freedom from thoſe miſeries that the French have brought upon other countries, and for the internal tranquillity that we enjoyed. The motion in the Houſe of Peers was negatived by 86, againſt 16. And that in the Lower Houſe, by 242, againſt 59.

From the time that the affairs of the Bank came under the conſideration of Parliament, the minority had always declaimed againſt ſending any more money to the Emperor; and, on various occaſions, debates had been introduced on that ſubject. But theſe debates were broken off, and the occaſion of them removed, by the arrival of the news, that preliminaries of peace be-

tween France and the Emperor, were ſigned on the 18th of April.

It was towards the cloſe of this Seſſion of Parliament, that an act paſſed for raiſing a militia in Scotland. The number to be raiſed was only ſix thouſand. The names of all the men, from the age of nineteen to twenty-three, were to be taken down, and affixed to the church-doors in every pariſh; that ſuch as claimed exemption might have an opportunity of applying for that purpoſe. The corrected liſts were to be ſent to the Privy Council, that they might apportion the number of men for each county, burgh, &c. And from theſe liſts the militia were to be choſen by ballot. The act was to continue in force, only during the war, and for one month after. The want of a militia for Scotland, as the moſt conſtitutional mode of defence, had long been regretted by every friend of the country. Yet now it was with much difficulty that the people were reconciled to it. Serious riots took place in different parts; but through the activity of the magiſtrates, and the aſſiſtance of the military, in the few caſes where it was neceſſary, little miſchief was done.

On the 18th of May, the marriage of the Princeſs Royal with his Serene Highneſs Frederick William, Hereditary Prince of Wirtemberg, was celebrated at London. Parliament voted £.80,000. for her portion; and addreſſes of congratulation were preſented to their Majeſties on the occaſion, by both Houſes, in the uſual form.

Sundry other debates took place, during this Seſſion, about ſinecure places and penſions, about the ſlave trade, about a reform in parliament, &c. But as they were not very intereſting, nor much connected with the war, the reader will excuſe our paſſing them, and proceeding

proceeding to things of more importance. It was the 20th of July before the Seſſion was cloſed.

The principal reaſon of Parliament's continuing to ſit ſo long, was an event, the moſt alarming to Britain of any that took place during this war, or perhaps, during any other, viz. the mutiny on board the fleet. To our naval force we are indebted, not only for much of our ſucceſs, in this and former conflicts, but even for our ſafety and exiſtence as a nation. And if Britain ſhall ever loſe her ſuperiority at ſea, it is not probable, that ſhe will long retain her poſſeſſions abroad, or even her independence at home. It was not, therefore, without the moſt ſerious apprehenſions, that a ſpirit of diſaffection was obſerved to break out in the fleet, in the ſpring of 1797, the origin of which it is not eaſy to trace. The profeſſed motive of the diſturbance, was to obtain redreſs of ſome grievances reſpecting the quantity and diſtribution of their pay and proviſions.

In the month of February, ſome letters from the fleet at Portſmouth were forwarded to Earl Howe, praying for his influence, towards obtaining redreſs of certain grievances. But as they were anonymous, and moſt of them ſeemed to be written in the ſame hand, they were conſidered as the production of ſome factious individual, and little attention was paid to them. After the fleet returned to port, on the 31ſt of March, a general correſpondence by letter took place, from ſhip to ſhip, through the whole fleet; and it was agreed, that no ſhip ſhould lift an anchor, till the demands of the ſeamen were complied with. Accordingly, when Lord Bridport received orders to put to ſea with the Channel fleet, and the ſignal was made to prepare for ſailing; inſtead of weighing anchor, the men in the Admiral's ſhip ran up the ſhrouds, and gave three cheers, which

was

was the ſignal previouſly agreed upon, to announce diſobedience. Theſe were anſwered by all the other ſhips, which ſhewed the combination to be general. The inferior officers, for the moſt part, took part with the men; and all the exertions of their commanders were to no purpoſe. This happened on the 15th of April.

Delegates were then appointed from each ſhip, to repreſent the whole fleet; the Admiral's cabin was fixed upon as their place of meeting; and the officers were reſtrained, by force, from going on ſhore. Petitions were then drawn up, and preſented to the Admirals then on the ſpot, demanding an increaſe of wages, and ſome regulations concerning the ratio of proviſions. They intimated a reſolution not to put to ſea till their petitions were anſwered, unleſs the enemy were known to be at ſea.

On the 17th the men were publicly ſworn to be true to the cauſe in which they were engaged. Next day a committee of the Admiralty, with Earl Spencer at their head, arrived at Portſmouth, and made ſeveral propoſitions to reduce the men to obedience; but without effect. They next went on board the Queen Charlotte, and conferred with the Delegates; who aſſured them, that no arrangement would be conſidered as final, till it was ſanctioned by Parliament, and accompanied by a proclamation for a general pardon. On the 23d Admiral Lord Bridport returned to his ſhip, and informed the crew, that the Lords of the Admiralty had agreed to allow five ſhillings and ſixpence per month additional, to every petty officer and able ſeaman, which would raiſe their wages to one ſhilling per day, clear of all deductions; four ſhillings and ſixpence to every ordinary ſeaman, and three ſhillings and ſixpence to every landman;

man; and to redreſs their other grievances. The ſame information was given to the crews of the other ſhips, by their reſpective captains. He alſo ſhewed them his Majeſty's proclamation, iſſued on the preceding day, offering a free pardon to all who ſhould return to their duty. The ſailors declared that they would give no anſwer, till the propoſal was laid before the court of delegates. The delegates met, and after diſcuſſing the queſtion, agreed to accept what was offered them. And the mutiny was thought to have been at an end.

But, on the 7th of May, when Lord Bridport again made the ſignal to weigh anchor, every ſhip at St Helens refuſed to obey; and a meeting of the Delegates was appointed on board the London, Admiral Colpoy's ſhip. Reſolved to oppoſe their coming on board, the Admiral ordered the marines to level their pieces at them. The marines obeyed, and a ſkuffle enſued, in which ſome were killed and wounded on both ſides. The ſailors then turned their guns towards the ſtern, and threatened to blow all aft into the water, unleſs the Officers yielded. They were obliged to comply. Admiral Colpoys and Captain Griffiths were confined for ſome time, and great fears were entertained for their lives.

A principal reaſon aſſigned for this ſecond meeting was, that what was done by the Admiralty, had not yet been confirmed by Parliament. But on the 8th day of May, Mr Pitt informed the Houſe of Commons of what the Lords of the Admiralty had done; and propoſed, in a Committee of Supply, that a ſum be granted to his Majeſty, to enable him to defray the increaſed pay and allowance to ſeamen, &c. according to the order of Council, founded on the report of the Commiſſioners of the Admiralty. On account of the delicacy of the caſe,

and

and the danger of misrepresentation, he disclaimed any long discussion. The minority did not oppose the motion, but blamed the Minister for not bringing it forward sooner. His reply was, that it was made as soon as the estimates could be made up. The motion was agreed to, and reported; and a bill to that purpose carried through all the forms in both Houses the next day, and received the Royal assent immediately, by commission. By this bill also provision was made for granting a full allowance to wounded seamen; and all seamen were allowed to remit part of their wages for the support of their wives, children, or mothers.

The fleet at Portsmouth, after all, continued in a mutinous state, till the 14th of the month, when Lord Howe came down from the Admiralty, bringing with him the act of Parliament which had been passed on the 9th, and the King's proclamation of pardon to all who should immediately return to their duty; and having full power to settle any other little points of dispute. A conversation took place on board the Royal George, Admiral Bridport's ship, between Lord Howe and the principal Officers of the fleet on the one side, and the Delegates on the other. The latter appeared sensible of the impropriety of their conduct, and promised obedience for the future. His Lordship also visited most of the ships, both at St Helens and Spithead. The sailors appeared quite satisfied, the flag of disaffection was struck, and the fleet prepared to put to sea against the enemy. Only the crew of the Mars continued to display the blue flag, and it was not till they were threatened with force by the other ships, that they returned to their duty.

The public saw, with much satisfaction, the happy termination of this alarming business; but this pleasure

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was ſoon turned into conſternation, by a new mutiny in another quarter, which, for boldneſs and extent, was never equalled in the hiſtory of the Britiſh navy.

This mutiny began at the Nore, where Admiral Buckner commanded. On the 23d of May, the diſcontented ſeamen ſtruck the Admiral's flag on board the Sandwich, and hoiſted a red flag in its place, as a ſignal of diſobedience. They compelled all the ſhips which lay near Sheerneſs to drop down to the Great Nore, in order to concentrate their operations. In imitation of what had been done at Portſmouth, they choſe two Delegates from each ſhip, of whom a man named Richard Parker was Preſident, and acted as Admiral of the fleet. After having confined, or ſent on ſhore, their principal Officers, they tranſmitted to the Lords of the Admiralty a ſeries of articles, as the only terms upon which they would return to obedience; ſome of which were entirely incompatible with the diſcipline of the navy. Beſides their two Delegates, every ſhip had a Committee of twelve men, who determined every thing relative to the internal management of the veſſel, and decided upon the merits of their reſpective Delegates.

At firſt the mutineers went on ſhore without interruption. Their Delegates paraded about Sheerneſs, with muſic, flags, and a triumphal appearance. Their head quarters were in a public houſe, from the windows of which a red flag was hung out many days ſucceſſively. They ſeemed Commanders of Sheerneſs, as well as of the ſhips at the Nore. But Lord Keith and Sir Charles Grey being ſent down to ſuperintend the naval and military operations in that quarter, they were no longer permitted to come on ſhore.

With a view to force compliance with their demands, they proceeded to block up the Thames, by refuſing a

paſſage up and down the river to the London trade. The ſhips of neutral nations, however, colliers, and a few ſmall craft, were ſuffered to paſs, after receiving a certificate from Parker, as Preſident of the Delegates. The ſhips of the line were drawn up with their broadſides fronting one another, at the diſtance of half a mile, in a line acroſs the river. In the ſpaces between them were moored the merchant ſhips which they had detained, &c. They ſupplied themſelves with water and proviſions from the ſhips they ſtopped. One veſſel they plundered of three hundred ſacks of flour, which was diſtributed among the ſeveral ſhips, as they ſtood much in need of it. A party of ſailors having landed on the Iſle of Grain, carried off a number of ſheep, and other articles of proviſion.

A Deputation from the Admiralty, at the head of which was Lord Spencer, went down to Sheerneſs, but had no converſation with the Delegates, as they demanded unconditional ſubmiſſion as a preliminary to any intercourſe. They departed, after cauſing it to be intimated to the ſeamen, that they muſt expect no other conceſſion than ſuch as had already been made by the Legiſlature, the benefit of which they might yet enjoy, if they would return to their duty.

On the 30th of May, the Clyde frigate was carried off from the mutinous fleet, by a combination of the Officers, aided by ſome of the ſeamen; as was alſo the St Fiorenzo, which had joined them, though ſhe had been appointed to carry over the Princeſs of Wirtemberg to Germany. Theſe ſhips were fired at by ſeveral others, and the laſt ſuſtained ſome damage. On the evening of the 5th of June, two other veſſels, the Serapis frigate, and the Diſcovery, attempted to eſcape, with a view to return to obedience. As ſoon as this

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was perceived, all the line of battle ſhips poured broadſides upon them. The Serapis, however, got off, and came to Sheerneſs, though much damaged. The noiſe of the firing on this occaſion, had a tremendous effect on ſhore.

On the 6th of June, in the morning, four ſhips of the line, and a ſloop of war, which had deſerted from Admiral Duncan's fleet, joined the mutineers at the Nore. The crew of the Lancaſter, which lay at Long Reach, ſhewed evident ſymptoms of a diſpoſition to join them, but were prevented by the batteries at Tilbury Fort and Graveſend, and other works on the ſide of the river, which were faithfully ſerved by the military. The force of the mutineers, at its greateſt height, amounted to eleven ſhips of the line, and thirteen frigates, making twenty-four ſail in all.

During the whole time of the mutiny, the ſeamen, with few exceptions, treated their Officers with an appearance of reſpect, though their command was ſuſpended. They alſo profeſſed to take an intereſt in the welfare of their country, and to perſiſt in their loyalty to the King. On the 4th of June a general ſalute was fired from all the ſhips, and the veſſels were decorated as uſual, in honour of his Majeſty's birth-day. But ſtill the red flag was kept flying at the main-maſt of the Sandwich.

In the mean time Government was not inactive. After the return of the Commiſſioners of the Admiralty from Sheerneſs, a proclamation was iſſued, offering his Majeſty's pardon to all ſuch as ſhould immediately return to their duty; intimating, that Admiral Buckner was the proper perſon to be applied to on ſuch an occaſion. An act of Parliament was ſpeedily paſſed, for preventing all intercourſe with the crews of the muti-

nous ſhips from the ſhore. All the buoys were removed from the mouth of the Thames, and the neighbouring coaſt, by order of Government. By this means, if any of the large ſhips ſhould have attempted to ſail away, they were in danger of running a-ground. Great preparations were alſo made at Sheerneſs, againſt an attack from the mutineers, who had given ſome indications of a diſpoſition to bombard that place, and red-hot balls were kept in readineſs.

The Earl of Northeſk, who was Captain of the Monmouth, had always been a favourite with the ſeamen. At the deſire of the Delegates, he went on board the Sandwich, and received from them a written commiſſion, in the following words:—"My Lord, you are "hereby required and directed, to proceed to London, "with ſuch papers as are entruſted to your care, and to "lay the ſame before our gracious Sovereign, King "George the Third; and to repreſent to our gracious "Sovereign, that the ſeamen at the Nore have been "groſsly miſrepreſented.' At the ſame time, if our gra-"cious Sovereign does not order us to be redreſſed in "fifty-four hours, ſuch ſteps will be taken as will aſto-"niſh our dear countrymen. By order of the Dele-"gates of the whole fleet.

"RICHARD PARKER, *President*."

His Lordſhip, being furniſhed with a paſſport by Parker, went up by water, and laid their demands before the Lords of the Admiralty. He then went, attended by Earl Spencer, and laid them before the King; but, as theſe demands were found inadmiſſible, Captain Knight, of the Inflexible, carried down the refuſal of the Lords of the Admiralty, on the 9th of June.

All hopes of accommodation being now given up, meaſures

meaſures were taken by Lord Keith and Sir Charles Grey, to attack the fleet from the works at Sheerneſs, with gun-boats, &c. But the application of force was rendered unneceſſary, by the defection of the Repulſe, Ardent, and Leopard, on the night of the 9th of June, and other ſymptoms of diſunion among the mutineers. On the next day, ſeveral others of the mutinous ſhips pulled down the red flag, as a ſignal for the merchantmen to proceed up the River; but the ſtore and victualling ſhips were to remain behind. All of theſe, however, profited by the opportunity, to make their eſcape, though they were fired at by ſome of the fleet. On the 11th the Neptune, of 98 guns, manned with preſs gangs and volunteers, commanded by Sir Edward Gower, fell down to Long Reach, with a view to act offenſively againſt the mutineers. The Lancaſter, the Agincourt, and a number of gun-boats, were equipped in the River for the ſame purpoſe.

The firmneſs of the ſeamen was ſhaken, both by the formidable preparations made by Government, and by the want of proviſions and water. On the 12th all the ſhips, except ſeven, ſtruck the red flag, and hoiſted the Union, in token of their willingneſs to return to their duty. On the 13th the Agamemnon, the Standard, the Naſſau, the Iſis, and the Veſtal, ran away from the reſt of the fleet, and got under the protection of the fort, not a ſhot being fired at them. The crews of theſe ſhips, however, were far from being unanimous, as ſeveral men were killed and wounded in the ſtruggles that took place between the party of the Officers and that of the ſeamen. On the evening of the ſame day, not a red flag was ſeen flying at the Nore. On the 16th all reſiſtance to the authority of the Officers ceaſed, and the mutiny was, in effect, terminated. After the Sandwich

wich had come under the guns of the fort, a party of ſoldiers was ſent on board, to apprehend the ringleaders of the mutiny. The crew delivered up Parker and Davies, their two Delegates, with about thirty Delegates from the other ſhips, who were ſtill on board; and they were all put in priſon, in the fort. On the firſt appearance of the ſoldiers, Wingate, one of the Delegates from the Standard, ſhot himſelf dead.

On the 22d of the month, Parker's trial commenced, before a Court Martial, on board the Neptune. He was condemned to ſuffer death, and executed on board the Sandwich a few days after. In his laſt moments he acknowledged the juſtice of his ſentence, and ſaid, he hoped his death might be deemed a ſufficient atonement, and might ſave the lives of others. The Court Martial continued to ſit for more than a month, on the trial of other ringleaders of the Mutiny. A great number were condemned, and ſome were executed; but the greateſt part of thoſe who received ſentence of death, continued in a priſon-ſhip in the river Thames, till after Lord Duncan's victory, when his Majeſty graciouſly ſent them a general pardon.

The ſpirit of mutiny was not confined to the fleets at Portſmouth and the Nore. It broke out aboard the Pompee, one of the ſhips of Lord Bridport's fleet, when cruizing off Breſt. She was of conſequence brought into Portſmouth harbour, where four of the ringleaders were convicted, and two of them executed on board the ſame ſhip. It alſo broke out in Admiral Pringle's fleet, at the Cape of Good Hope, about the month of October; but, by the Admiral's prudent conduct, they were brought back to a ſenſe of their duty, and he granted them a general pardon.

On the firſt day of June, his Majeſty ſent a Meſſage to

to both Houſes of Parliament, acquainting them with the mutinous ſtate of the fleet, and recommending it to them to make more effectual proviſion for the prevention and puniſhment of all attempts to excite ſedition or mutiny in his ſervice, by ſea or land. A bill was accordingly brought in, appointing perſons who ſhould be found guilty of ſuch attempts, to ſuffer death, as in caſes of felony, without benefit of Clergy. But the duration of the bill was limited to one month after the commencement of the next Seſſion of Parliament. Another bill was introduced, appointing the ſame puniſhment to thoſe who ſhould wilfully hold communication with the crews of ſhips declared to be in a ſtate of mutiny. Both theſe bills were carried thro' both Houſes with very little debate, and received the royal aſſent on the 6th of the month.

As the pay of the ſeamen had been advanced, it was with great propriety reſolved to grant a proportionable increaſe of wages to the land forces. Accordingly his Majeſty was pleaſed to order that, from the 25th of May, there ſhould be paid to each private ſoldier of infantry, whether employed at home, or on foreign ſervice, the ſum of one ſhilling daily; to a drummer, thirteen pence farthing; to a corporal, fourteen pence farthing; and to a ſerjeant, eighteen pence three farthings. Out of this the ſoldier was to pay the extra price of bread and meat, formerly paid by the public, amounting, at an average, to the daily ſum of one penny three farthings. So that the net addition to the ſoldiers pay, was two pence per day. The militia and fencible regiments were put upon the ſame footing with thoſe of the line. Theſe regulations being afterwards approved by Parliament, they made proviſion for the fulfilment of them.

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The war between Britain and France was this year almoſt wholly confined to naval operations, in which the ſkill and courage of Britiſh ſeamen were eminently diſplayed, and almoſt in every inſtance crowned with victory. But among the firſt military occurrences of the year, was an attempt made by the French Directory, to put in practice their pompous threats of an invaſion of Britain; though the manner in which it was made, ſeemed as if intended to burleſque the whole project. On the 22d of February, that part of the coaſt of Devonſhire which lies at the mouth of the Briſtol Channel, was alarmed by the appearance of an enemy's force, conſiſting of three frigates, which entered the little port of Ilfracombe, ſcuttled ſome merchant veſſels, and attempted to deſtroy all the ſhips in the harbour. Their ſtay, however, was very ſhort, and they ſteered directly acroſs the Channel, towards the Pembroke ſide. They were firſt deſcried from the heights above St Bride's Bay, and then the ſquadron appeared to conſiſt of two frigates and two ſmaller veſſels, ſteering round St David's Head. After turning that point, and ſailing a few miles northward, they caſt anchor; but after continuing a ſhort time in that place, they moved farther up towards Fiſhguard, and anchored in a ſmall bay near Lanonda Church, where they hoiſted French colours, and put out their boats. The cliff is here exceedingly ſteep and rugged, and a party of them were obſerved ſcrambling up on their hands and knees, and throwing their muſquets before them. As ſoon as this party had reached the top of the aſcent, they ſet fire to the furze, and other combuſtibles, to inform their companions of their ſucceſs, and the whole were debarked before the morning of the 23d. Numbers of them were immediately diſperſed through the country,

country, to procure themſelves proviſions and apparel. Many of the people deſerted their houſes, which the Frenchmen ranſacked, and two countrymen were killed.

The alarm at firſt was general, but the number and ſituation of the enemy were ſoon diſcovered to be contemptible. The gentlemen and peaſantry of the neighbourhood diſplayed a ſpirit of loyalty deſerving the higheſt commendation. Of the latter many thouſands aſſembled, and attacked the enemy with ſcythes, pitchforks, and other ruſtic weapons, before the arrival of the troops that were ſent againſt them; though no delay was made in collecting a regular force to oppoſe them; for, before night, Lord Cawdor brought up about ſix hundred and ſixty men, conſiſting of militia, fencibles, and yeomanry cavalry; and, on approaching the enemy, about ten o'clock at night, he received a letter by a French officer, ſigned, "*Tate, chef de brigade*," intimating, "That the circumſtances under "which the French troops were landed, rendered it "unneceſſary to attempt any military operation. The "officers deſired, from principles of humanity, to enter into a negotiation for a ſurrender." His Lordſhip returned for anſwer, That the ſuperiority of the forces under his command, which was hourly increaſing, prevented his treating with them on any terms ſhort of their ſurrendering themſelves priſoners of war. Accordingly, they all laid down their arms about two o'clock on the 26th. The four veſſels, as ſoon as they had ſet the troops on ſhore, ſet ſail for France; but the two frigates (which were, La Reſiſtance, of 48 guns, and La Conſtance, of 24,) were taken, as they were ſailing into Breſt harbour, on the 9th of the following month, by the St Fiorenzo and the Nymph frigates,

under the command of Sir Harry Neale; as will afterwards be narrated.

It is not eaſy to conjecture what was the object that the Directory had in view in this expedition. By all accounts their number did not exceed one thouſand four hundred; and they had no cannon, though they had ſeventy cart-loads of powder and ball, and a quantity of hand-grenades. Such an armament could never be expected to make any impreſſion in the country. Some ſaid they were a band of galley-ſlaves, and other criminals, collected from the priſons of France, and landed in England merely to quarter them upon this country. But their commander declared, that he had with him ſix hundred of the beſt troops in France, veteran and experienced ſoldiers. Nor is it eaſily credible that they would have been furniſhed with ſuch ample ſupplies, if this had been all the deſign of ſending them over. Others, therefore, thought it intended as an experiment, to try at once the temper of the people of England, and the practicability of a deſcent upon our coaſts. The French well knew that there was always a party among the common people of Britain favourable to their cauſe. They ſeem to have taken it for granted, that a great majority of the nation were ſo. Perhaps the Directory expected, that this handful of troops, if once they got them landed in Britain, would ſoon be joined by multitudes of the lower claſſes of inhabitants, by whoſe aſſiſtance they might be able to maintain themſelves, againſt any force that could ſuddenly be collected in that remote part of the country, till reinforcements might be ſent them. If they did entertain ſuch hopes, the reception given to their troops by the country people, as well as the alacrity with which the militia and yeomanry turned out, at a moment's warning, for

for the defence of their country, completely undeceived them.

Excepting this ill-concerted expedition, the French navy did nothing of importance this year; but continued ignominiouſly blocked up in their own ports. But their new allies, the Spaniards and the Dutch, ſuffered conſiderably in two naval engagements, equally glorious to the Britiſh arms.

The firſt of theſe took place on the 14th of February, off Cape St Vincent. The Britiſh ſquadron, under the command of Admiral Sir John Jervis, amounted to no more than fifteen ſail of the line, four frigates, one ſloop of war, and a cutter. Of theſe ſix were three-deckers, eight were of 74 guns, and one of 64. A Spaniſh fleet, under Don Joſef de Cordova, had ſailed from Charthagena on the 4th of that month, conſiſting of twenty-ſeven ſail of the line, one of which was a four decker, and carried 136 guns: ſix were three-deckers of 112 guns each; two of 84 guns, and eighteen of 74. They paſſed by Gibraltar on the 5th, having left in that bay three line of battle ſhips, laden with military ſtores, for the Spaniſh troops before that garriſon. On the night of the 11th, this fleet had been diſcovered by Commodore Nelſon, in the Minerva frigate, while on his way from the Mediterranean, to join Sir John Jervis. On the night of the 13th, they approached ſo near to the Britiſh fleet, that their ſignal guns were diſtinctly heard. Sir John Jervis therefore made the ſignal to prepare for battle; and at day-break on the 14th, the ſquadron were in complete order.

The morning was dark and hazy; but about half paſt ſix, the Culloden made the ſignal for five ſail in the ſouth-weſt quarter. At eight, the ſquadron was ordered to form in cloſe order, and a few minutes after,

the ſignal to prepare for battle was repeated. A little after ten, the Minerva frigate made ſignal for twenty ſail in the ſouth-weſt quarter, and half an hour after, the Spaniſh fleet were viſible to the whole Britiſh ſquadron. The ſhips firſt diſcovered by the Culloden were then at a diſtance from their main body, which was bearing down, in ſome confuſion, to join them. In order to cut off theſe veſſels, the Britiſh Admiral gave orders to his faſt ſailing ſhips to chaſe. But obſerving the near poſition of the enemy's main body, he ſoon changed his plan, formed his line of battle a-head, and, having communicated his deſign of paſſing through the enemy's line, he made the ſignal to engage.

About half paſt eleven the action commenced by the Culloden, which was the van ſhip, commanded by Captain Trowbridge, firing againſt the enemy's headmoſt ſhips to windward. As the ſquadron advanced, the action became general, and the deſign of paſſing thro' the enemy's line was accompliſhed. Their ſhips to windward were thus completely prevented from joining their companions to leeward, and were obliged to haul their wind, on the larboard tack. Thoſe to leeward were ſo roughly handled, by the centre of the Britiſh, that they were obliged to put about, and did not appear again in action till towards the cloſe of the day.

The Britiſh Admiral now directed his chief attention to the main body of the enemy, which continued to windward, and, by the ſeparation of the other ſhips, was reduced to eighteen ſhips of the line. A little after twelve o'clock, the ſignal was made for the Britiſh fleet to tack in ſucceſſion, and again to paſs thro' the enemy's line; while the Spaniſh Admiral was endeavouring, by wearing round the rear of the Britiſh, to join his ſhips to leeward. Commodore Nelſon, who commanded

manded the Captain of 74 guns, being ſtationed in the rear, had an opportunity, which he did not neglect, of perceiving the Spaniard's intention. And in order to fruſtrate it, his ſhip had no ſooner paſſed the Spaniſh rear, than he ordered her to wear, and ſtand towards the enemy on the other tack. In executing this bold manœuvre, he found himſelf along-ſide the Spaniſh Admiral, the Santiſſima Trinidad of 136 guns, ſuppoſed to be the largeſt ſhip in the world. Notwithſtanding this vaſt inferiority, and though the Spaniard was warmly ſupported by his two ſeconds, a-head and a-ſtern, which were both three-deckers, the brave Nelſon maintained the conteſt, till his two friends, Captain Trowbridge of the Culloden, and Captain Frederick of the Blenheim, perceiving his danger, preſſed forward to his aſſiſtance. This, together with the approach of Admiral Parker, with four more ſhips of the Britiſh line, induced the Spaniſh Admiral to relinquiſh the deſign of rejoining his veſſels to leeward; he made the ſignal for his main body to haul their wind, and make ſail on the larboard tack.

The advantage was now plainly on the ſide of the Britiſh. In the confuſion of retreat, ſome of the Spaniſh ſhips had doubled on each other. Admiral Jervis then ordered the leading ſhip of his diviſion, the Excellent, Captain Collingwood, to bear up, while himſelf in the Victory paſſed to leeward of the rearmoſt ſhips of the enemy. Captain Collingwood, in obedience to his orders, paſſed between their two hindmoſt ſhips, and gave ſuch an effectual broadſide to one of them, the San Iſidro, that, having been much injured before, ſhe was obliged to ſtrike. The Excellent then paſſed on to the relief of Commodore Nelſon, in the Captain, who was then engaged with two ſhips of the enemy, one of which,

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the Sans Joſef, was a three-decker, carrying a flag, and the other the San Nicolas was a two-decker. But before the Excellent had come up, theſe two Spaniſh ſhips were entangled, the one with the other. In this ſituation Commodore Nelſon firſt boarded the San Nicolas, which lay neareſt him, and obliged her to ſubmit. From the San Nicolas he boarded the San Joſef, and both became his prizes. In the mean time, Admiral Jervis had placed the Victory on the lee-quarter of the Salvador del Mundo, the rear-moſt ſhip of the enemy, and aſſaulted her ſo warmly, that her commander, obſerving the Barfleur, which carried Admiral Waldegrave's flag, bearing down to ſecond the Victory, thought it time to ſtrike. The van ſhips continued to preſs ſo hard upon the Santiſſima Trinidad, that ſhe was rendered a perfect wreck. She had ceaſed her firing before the cloſe of the action, and ſome ſaid that ſhe had even ſtruck her colours.

A ſtop was now put to the career of Victory, by circumſtances which Britiſh valour could not controul. The ſhips which, in the morning, had been ſeparated from the main body of the Spaniſh fleet, were now in a condition to make their approach; and two freſh ſhips, which had not appeared during the action, bore down from windward; while two of the flying ſhips tacked about, in order to ſupport their chiefs. Theſe circumſtances, together with the lateneſs of the hour, determined the Britiſh Admiral to bring to, in order to ſecure the prizes. The ſignal was made to this effect, a little after four in the afternoon; and a ſtrong line was formed round the prizes and diſabled ſhips. The enemy's freſh ſhips, when they came up, opened a fire on the covering veſſels, but contented themſelves with a few irregular broadſides; and left the Britiſh ſquadron

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to ſail off with their prizes in a triumphant manner. Theſe were four ſhips of the line, viz. the Salvador del Mundo, and the San Joſef of 112 guns each, the San Nicolas of 84, and the San Iſidro of 74. The loſs of the Britiſh, in killed and wounded, in this engagement, was exactly three hundred and forty men. The Spaniard's loſt, in the four ſhips that were captured, ſix hundred and ninety-eight. And the loſs in thoſe which eſcaped, muſt have been conſiderable.

A victory ſo important has ſeldom been atchieved, with a force ſo much inferior to that of the enemy. The ability of the commander, the intrepidity of the other officers, and the valour and adroitneſs of the ſeamen, were equally conſpicuous in the engagement. It was obſerved, that the fire of the Britiſh was ſuperior to that of the Spaniards, in the proportion of five to one; and the expenditure of ammunition was, conſequently, beyond example. The Culloden is ſaid to have expended one hundred and ſeventy barrels of powder, the Blenheim one hundred and eighty, and the Captain one hundred and forty-ſix. The Spaniards fought bravely, but with little ſkill. Their fleet was both ill equipped, and very indifferently manned. The Admiral's ſhip, it was ſaid, had no more than eighty real ſeamen on board; the reſt were all impreſſed landmen, or ſoldiers of their new levies. As their original deſtination was for Cadiz; they made all haſte to take ſhelter in that harbour, where they long continued to be blocked up by their gallant conqueror. Soon as the news of the victory arrived in London, the thanks of both Houſes of Parliament were voted to Sir John Jervis, his officers and men; and himſelf was created a Britiſh Peer, by the title of Lord St Vincent, in alluſion to the place where the memorable battle was fought.

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The Dutch were ſtill more unfortunate in their naval operations, though their failure were leſs diſhonourable. It had long been known in England, that immenſe preparations had been making in the ports of Holland; and Admiral Duncan, with the North-Sea fleet, had watched the Texel, through the greateſt part of the ſummer. The Dutch fleet was ready for ſea, ſome time before it ſailed, and the command of it was given to Admiral de Winter. This officer had been a Lieutenant in the engagement off the Dogger-bank, in the laſt war, and afterwards advanced to the rank of Captain. But, having taken part againſt the Stadtholder, in the affair of 1786, fled into France, where he was promoted to the rank of Major-General; and returned into his own country with the army of Pichegru. When the order to put to ſea was firſt iſſued by the Dutch Convention, De Winter, conſcious of the ſuperiority of the Britiſh force, is ſaid to have remonſtrated. But having received a ſecond order, he was obliged to comply.

The real deſtination of the Dutch fleet was never openly avowed; but it afterwards appeared, that an invaſion of Ireland was its object; and that a large body of troops, under General Daendaels, had actually been embarked for that purpoſe: but had been ſet on ſhore again, when peremptory orders were iſſued to hazard an engagement with the Britiſh fleet. At the time of their ſailing, which was the beginning of October, Admiral Duncan had returned to Yarmouth roads to refit, leaving only Captain Trollope, in the Ruſſel of 74 guns, with a few ſmall veſſels, to obſerve the motions of the enemy. On the morning of the 9th of the month, a ſignal was made, at the back of Yarmouth Sands, by a veſſel which Captain Trollope had ſent for that purpoſe,

poſe, intimating to Admiral Duncan, that the Dutch fleet was at ſea. Immediately the whole fleet weigh anchor, conſiſting of ſixteen ſail of the line, and three frigates, and were out of ſight in the afternoon. On the 11th, at nine o'clock in the morning, the Admiral got ſight of Captain Trollope's ſquadron, with ſignals flying for an enemy to leeward. The Admiral immediately bore up, made the ſignal for a general chaſe, and in leſs than an hour came in ſight of the enemy, drawn up in a line on the larboard tack, to receive him.

The Dutch fleet conſiſted of four ſhips of 74 guns, five of 68, two of 64, four of 56, and two large frigates of 44 guns, beſides four other frigates of ſmaller force. In the Britiſh fleet were ſix ſhips of 74 guns, ſeven of 64, and two of 50, beſides frigates; ſo that, both in numbers of men, and weight of metal, the ſuperiority was on our ſide, though our ſhips were rather fewer.

As the Britiſh Admiral approached near to the enemy, he made ſignal for the fleet to ſhorten ſail, in order to connect them. Soon after, he ſaw the land on the Dutch coaſt, between Camperdown and Egmont, about nine miles to leeward of the enemy, and finding that there was no time to be loſt in making the attack, he made the ſignal at half paſt eleven, to bear up, to break the enemy's line, and to engage them to leeward, each ſhip her opponent. By theſe means he got between them and the land, to which they were faſt approaching. The Dutch Admiral obſerving this, and aware of his opponent's deſign, made ſignal at the ſame time to cloſe. In this inſtance he was alertly obeyed by the greateſt part of his fleet; but Rear-Admiral Story, with his own ſhip and three others, run off at the commencement of the action, and entered the

Texel the following day. The ſignals of the Britiſh Admiral were obeyed with great promptitude by the whole fleet.

The action began about forty minutes after twelve. Admiral Onſlow, in the Monarch, bore down upon the enemy's rear, in a moſt gallant manner, followed by his whole diviſion. Every ſhip of the Britiſh fleet had broken through the enemy's line, and cut them off from the land, which was then about ſeven miles diſtant. While Admiral Onſlow's diviſion was engaged with the rear of the Dutch fleet, the Commander in Chief directed all his attention to their van. The Venerable, which bore his flag, was cloſely engaged for near two hours and a half, when all the maſts of the Dutch Admiral's ſhip went by the board. She was ſtill defended in a moſt gallant manner for ſome time longer, but at laſt was obliged to ſtrike her colours to the Venerable; Admiral de Winter himſelf, as was ſaid, being the only man on the quarter-deck who was not either killed or wounded.

About the ſame time, the Vice-Admiral's ſhip was diſmaſted, and ſurrendered to Admiral Onſlow. Several others had ſtruck before half paſt three o'clock, but the Britiſh Admiral finding himſelf in only nine fathoms water, and no more than five miles from land, was ſo much occupied in getting the heads of the diſabled ſhips turned off the ſhore, that he was not able to diſtinguiſh the number of the enemy's ſhips that ſtruck. Some of them took the advantage of the night to eſcape, and were ſeen going into the Texel the next morning. This they could the more eaſily do, as the wind blowing conſtantly on the land, the Britiſh ſhips were unavoidably diſperſed. The prizes, however, that were ſecured, were two ſhips of 74 guns, three of 68, two of 64,

two

two of 56, one of 44, and a frigate of 32 guns; but the Delft of 56 guns foundered within ſight of the Britiſh coaſt. The frigate alſo was loſt.

In this engagement a good deal of blood was ſpilt. The loſs, in killed and wounded, on board only nine ſhips in the Britiſh fleet, were ſeven hundred and twenty-four. The loſs of the Dutch muſt have been great. On board each of the two ſhips that bore Admirals flags, there were two hundred and fifty killed and wounded; and none of the captured veſſels had loſt fewer than one hundred men. Captain Burgeſs of the Ardent was killed, Captain Eſſington was wounded, and ſeveral inferior officers were killed and wounded on the Britiſh ſide. The Dutch Vice-Admiral, Reventjies, died of his wounds ſoon after his arrival in England. The action happened ſo near the coaſt of Holland, that every movement could be ſeen diſtinctly from the land. The ſhore, for many miles, was covered with thouſands of ſpectators, who ſaw the deſtruction of their own fleet, without having it in their power to afford them any relief.

The principal merit of Admiral Duncan, in this affair, was in running his fleet between the enemy and a lee-ſhore, a ſtep which none of his predeceſſors had ever dared to take in ſimilar circumſtances. His judgment in chooſing the proper time for attacking the enemy, and in bringing off his ſhips and prizes from ſo dangerous a ſituation, appeared equal to his boldneſs in hazarding ſo deciſive a meaſure. The gallant Admiral was rewarded by his Majeſty, with a Peerage, immediately on his return; being created Viſcount Duncan of Camperdown (in alluſion to the place where the victory was atchieved), and Baron of Lundie, in the county of Angus, the place of his nativity.

It would exceed our limits, to enumerate the various captures that were made in the courſe of the year by detached cruiſers. It may be proper to mention the following:

On the 8th of March Sir Harry Neale, in the St Fiorenzo frigate, and Captain Cooke in the Nymphe, having been detached by Lord Bridport, to look into Breſt harbour, in returning to the fleet, they fell in with two French frigates, and captured them both. One was La Reſiſtance, carrying 48 guns, 18 pounders on her main deck, and three hundred and forty-five men, ſaid to be the largeſt frigate in the French ſervice, and one of the beſt; the other was La Conſtance, of 24 guns, and one hundred and eighty-nine men. What was very remarkable in this affair, was, that not a man was either killed or wounded in either of the Britiſh ſhips. In the Reſiſtance ten were killed, and nine wounded, including the Firſt Lieutenant. The Conſtance had eight killed, and ſix wounded.

On the 16th of July, Sir John Borlaſe Warren, with the ſquadron under his command, diſcovered a French frigate in Hodierne Bay, with fourteen tranſports under her convoy, laden with ſtores for the French navy. Of theſe he took eight, and deſtroyed two. The frigate was driven on ſhore, where ſhe was totally deſtroyed. On the 27th, he made prizes of five more ſhips, near the mouth of the Garonne, which were alſo laden with ſtores for the ſhips of war, and privateers in the neighbouring ports.

On the 2d of July, an attempt was made by Sir Horatio Nelſon, now a Rear-Admiral, to bombard the town of Cadiz, on the coaſt of Spain. The Thunderer bomb was placed within one thouſand five hundred yards of the walls, and a number of ſhells were thrown from

from her into the town. But it being found that the large mortar had been materially injured by former ſervices, the Thunderer was therefore ordered to return under the protection of ſome ſhips of war, that were kept under ſail for that purpoſe. The Spaniards having ſent out a great number of gun-boats and launches, Admiral Nelſon made a vigorous attack upon them, boarded, and took two gunboats, and a launch, in which was the commandant of the flotilla, and drove back the reſt under the walls of the town. The Spaniſh commandant, Don Miguel Tyraſon, continued to defend himſelf, till, of the 26 men who were with him in the launch, 18 were killed, and himſelf and all the reſt wounded.

On the night of the 5th, Admiral Nelſon ordered a ſecond bombardment, which produced a conſiderable effect upon the town, and the ſhipping in the harbour. Ten ſhips of the line, two of which carried Admirals flags, warped out of the range of the ſhells, with much precipitation, on the following morning. He meditated another operation on the night of the 8th, but the wind blew ſo ſtrong down the bay, that he could not get his bomb-veſſels up to the point of attack in time.

From a variety of information which Lord St Vincent had received, he was led to think that a ſucceſsful attack might be made upon the town of Santa Cruz, in the iſland of Teneriffe. He therefore detached Admiral Nelſon, with four ſhips of the line, three frigates, and two cutters, for that purpoſe, on the 15th of July. Upon his arrival before the town, Admiral Nelſon ordered one thouſand men to be landed from the different ſhips, under the command of Captain Trowbridge, of the Culloden, and of Captains Hood, Thompſon, Bowen, Freemantle, Millar, and Waller, who volunteered

teered their ſervices on the occaſion. The boats were accordingly manned, and the landing was effected in the courſe of the night. The party entered the town with little or no oppoſition, and continued in poſſeſſion of it for about ſeven hours; but finding it impracticable to ſtorm the fort, they were preparing to retreat; but this was rendered difficult, by the arrival of a conſiderable reinforcement to the garriſon, and by the violence of the ſurf upon the beach, which had rendered ſome of their boats unfit for ſervice. In this ſituation of things, the Spaniſh General ſummoned the Britiſh commander to ſurrender, but received for anſwer, that he would not capitulate, ſo long as a man remained alive. Upon receiving this reply, it is ſaid that the Spaniard ſent a meſſage to Admiral Nelſon, informing him that he and the remains of his men were at liberty to depart; and that he would even furniſh them with boats to return to their ſhips. Though this circumſtance was mentioned in the daily papers, it is uncertain what degree of credit is due to it, as no notice is taken of ſuch a thing in the Admiral's diſpatches. Nor, indeed, is it very credible; as ſuch conduct in the Spaniſh General to an enemy whom he was ſuppoſed to have had in his power, could not be reconciled to faithfulneſs in the cauſe of his country. It may be more eaſily believed, that after their retreat, he ſent a preſent of wine and biſcuit aboard their ſhips; for of ſuch generoſity from a brave man to an enemy, whoſe courage he had experienced, there have been a few examples.

The loſs ſuſtained in this unſucceſsful expedition was conſiderable. The killed and wounded amounted to two hundred and fifty-two, about one hundred of whom were drowned in going from and returning to the ſhips. Among theſe laſt was Captain Bowen of the Terpſichore,

chore, who, with his firſt Lieutenant, and all that were in the boat, went to the bottom, by a ſhell falling in the boat, which they were rowing towards the ſhore. Among the wounded was Admiral Nelſon himſelf, whoſe right-arm was ſhot off by a cannon ball.

The moſt remarkable event that took place in the Weſt Indies this year, was the taking of the iſland of Trinidad from the Spaniards, by the Britiſh forces under Sir Ralph Abercromby and Rear-Admiral Harvey. The troops to be employed in this expedition were collected from the different Iſlands. Admiral Harvey ſailed from Martinico on the 12th of February, and met the tranſports with the troops at Cariacou, where they had been appointed to rendezvous. On the 15th they ſailed from thence, and entered the Gulph of Paria on the next day, where they found a Spaniſh Admiral, with four ſail of the line and a frigate, at anchor under cover of the iſland of Gaſpargrande, which was fortified.

The Britiſh ſquadron worked up, and came to anchor oppoſite to the Spaniſh ſhips, and nearly within gun-ſhot of them. The frigates and tranſports were ordered to anchor higher up in the bay, about five miles from the town of Port d'Eſpagne; and the diſpoſition was made for landing at day-light next morning, and making an attack both upon the town and ſhips of war; but, at two o'clock in the morning of the 17th, the enemy's ſhips were ſeen to be on fire, and the whole ſquadron was conſumed, except the San-Damaſo, of 74 guns, which was taken poſſeſſion of in the morning, by the boats from the Britiſh fleet. At the ſame time the enemy abandoned the fortified iſland.

This unexpected turn of affairs fixed all the attention of the Britiſh Commanders on the attack of the town.

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The troops were landed in the morning, about four miles to the weſtward of it; they marched forward with little or no oppoſition, and in the afternoon were in poſſeſſion of Port d'Eſpagne, and its neighbourhood, two ſmall forts only excepted. The next day a capitulation was entered into with Don Chacon, the Governor; in the evening the Spaniſh troops laid down their arms, and the whole colony paſſed under the dominion of his Britannic Majeſty. The principal articles were, that all the effects belonging to his Catholic Majeſty ſhould be delivered up,—that the officers and troops on the iſland ſhould be priſoners of war, to be fed at the expence of the Britiſh; and that the inhabitants ſhould be protected in their perſons, property, liberty, and religion, upon taking an oath of allegiance to his Majeſty of Great Britain. The whole number of priſoners, including officers and privates, ſoldiers, ſeamen, and marines, was two thouſand two hundred and twenty-ſeven.

Another expedition, undertaken ſoon after, by the ſame forces, was not ſo ſucceſsful. On the 8th of April, the fleet under Admiral Harvey, ſailed again from Martinico, and, on the 10th, arrived at St Kitt's, where they waited a few days for pilots. On the 17th, they made the Iſland of Porto Rico, which alſo belonged to Spain, and came to anchor off Congrejos Point. The next morning, the troops under General Sir Ralph Abercromby, were landed from a ſmall bay on the north-ſide of the iſland, with little oppoſition, from about a hundred of the enemy, who had concealed themſelves among the buſhes at the landing place. In the afternoon the troops advanced, and took a poſition favourable to their deſign. The artillery was brought up without delay, and every preparation was made

made to force a paſſage into the iſland, in which the town of Porto Rico is ſituated. But the place was found to be ſo ſtrongly fortified, by the Moro Caſtle on the one ſide, and by the caſtle and lines of St Chriſtopher, as well as by gun-boats and other craft on the water, that no impreſſion could be made upon it with ſo ſmall a force. After bombarding the town for ſome days, without much effect, the General reimbarked his troops on the night of the 30th of April, carrying with him four Spaniſh braſs field-pieces, which had fallen into his hands; but with the loſs of more than two hundred men, killed, wounded, and miſſing.

At St Domingo ſome affairs of no great importance took place. About the middle of April a French frigate was chaſed into Moſtique Bay, and deſtroyed; and fourteen American veſſels, laden with proviſions, which had been taken by French privateers, were cut out of the road of Jean Rabel, by ſome cruiſers, belonging to Sir Hyde Parker's fleet. About the ſame time the French, under Touſſaint, having evacuated Mirebalais, and poſſeſſed themſelves of Grand Bois, a diviſion of their forces, on the ſide of Leógane, had raiſed a battery, upon which they had planted ſome cannon againſt Grenier. Apprehenſive that theſe two bodies might form a junction, and attack Port-au-Prince, and knowing that they could bring no cannon againſt it but thoſe which were at Grenier, Lieutenant Colonel Simcoe, who commanded at Port-au-Prince, ſent from thence a detachment of two thouſand troops; who, after amuſing the enemy by various feints, got poſſeſſion of the battery, demoliſhed it, and carried off the guns; by which the Colonel was freed from any apprehenſions for Port-au-Prince.

On the night of the 20th of April, the republican General Rigaud, with twelve hundred men, made an attack upon the Fort of Irois, which, at that time was defended, only by about forty-five men with their officers. The French were repulſed at firſt, but muſt have prevailed at length, if Colonel Dagraſs had not come up, with a reinforcement of three hundred and fifty black chaſſeurs; which obliged them to deſiſt from the attempt. After which they took and burnt the Bourg of Dame Marie, and made an attack upon the Fort of L'Iſlet; from whence they were driven with great loſs. In the mean time, they were preparing to lay regular ſiege to Irois, when Captain Beckets, in the Magicienne frigate, attacked their ſmall fleet in Carcaſſe Bay, ſunk three of their barges, and took two ſchooners, all laden with cannon and military ſtores for the ſiege. Their loſs in theſe various attacks, was ſuppoſed to be upwards of eight hundred, while that of the Britiſh was no more than two officers and three privates

In the beginning of June, the Britiſh forces under Brigadier General Churchill, retook the poſt of Mirebalais from the enemy. In the mean time, the French at Gonaives were preparing to lay ſiege to the town of St Marks. The army under General Churchill marched to its aſſiſtance. The enemy, having carried ſome of the outworks, began the ſiege of that important place; but were driven from it with very conſiderable loſs.

When Sir Ralph Abercromby arrived in Barbadoes, he informed the council, that he had it in command, to raiſe and embody ſome regiments of negroes, to be procured chiefly by purchaſe, in the different Britiſh iſlands. In the latter end of January, the General Aſſembly of Barbadoes took the affair into conſideration; and, after

after ſome deliberation, reſolved, that the meaſure propoſed was likely to prove deſtructive, rather than advantageous to the colony. It was ſaid, that a ſimilar reſolution was entered into by the aſſembly of Jamaica. The plan, however, was, in part, executed, without many bad conſequences: tho' what has taken place in the French iſlands, will probably induce our government, for the future, to be cautious how they truſt black men with arms in their hands.

CHAP. XII.

Compaign in Italy—Battle of Rivoli—Surrender of Mantua—Invasion of the papal territories—Peace with the Pope—Battle of La Chinse—Operations on the Rhine—Preliminaries signed between France and the Emperor—Fall of Venice, and of Genoa—State of affairs in France—Revolution of the 4th of September—Negotiation at Lisle—broken off—Treaty with Portugal concluded, and disannulled—Treaty with Sardinia. The Swiss insulted—Cisalpine Republic—Alcona—St Marino—State of Ireland—Proceedings in Parliament, till the end of 1797. *Death of the King of Prussia.*

HAVING given ſome account of thoſe operations of this Campaign in which the Britiſh arms were more immediately employed, it will now be neceſſary to look over to the Continent, where we ſhall ſee the French carrying all before them; and obliging our laſt Ally, for a time to deſert us, and ſubmit to ſuch terms as they ſaw meet to impoſe.

Not diſcouraged by the defeat of his army under General Alvinzi, and the deſtruction of his braveſt troops, in the battle of Arcole, the Emperor, during the ſhort interval which the dead of winter afforded, redoubled his efforts, to raiſe freſh levies for the relief of Mantua, and the Expulſion of the Gallic armies from his Italian Dominions. The young men of Vienna, not excepting thoſe of the higheſt rank, were embodied in military corps, and ſent poſt to recruit the Army of Alvinzi. The grand object was to penetrate that line of defence which Bonaparte had eſtabliſhed; to bring down

down a ſtrong column upon Mantua, to raiſe the blockade of that important city, and once more to bring the experienced Wurmſer into the field. Aware of this deſign, the French General employed ſuch efforts to prevent it, as only ſuch a bold and active genius could have either planned or executed.

In the beginning of the year, Alvinzi's Army was ſaid to amount to 50,000 men, and was poſted in the Tyrol, and on the Brenta. The French Army extended along the Adige, occupied the Line of Montebello, Corona and Rivoli, with advanced poſts before Verona and Porto Legnago. And Mantua being ſtill in a ſtate of cloſe blockade, the garriſon were reduced to ſuch extremity, in the article of proviſions, that they had no animal food but the fleſh of their horſes.

On the 7th of January, the Auſtrian Army began to move; and the following day, the diviſion of it which had been poſted at Padua, attacked the advanced guard of the French General, Angereau, before Porto Legnago, which, after a ſmart ſkirmiſh, they forced to retreat into that town. Bonaparte was then at Bologna; but having been apprized of the march of the Auſtrians, he loſt no time in diſpatching 2000 men to the aſſiſtance of Angereau, and himſelf, immediately after, ſet out for Verona, before which place the Imperialiſts appeared on the morning of the 12th. They attacked the advanced guard under General Maſſena; but were repulſed, with the loſs of 600 priſoners and three pieces of cannon. At the ſame moment the diviſion under General Joubert was attacked at Corona. At firſt the Auſtrians gained ſome advantage, and became maſters of a redoubt. But Joubert ſoon rallied his men, retook the redoubt by ſtorm, forced the Imperialiſts to retire to their former poſition, and took 300 of them priſoners.

ers. They renewed the attack the next day, with ſuch a ſuperiority of force as obliged him to retire from Corona, and take a poſition before Rivoli.

Bonaparte now clearly perceived that the intention of Alvinzi was to penetrate his line by the way of Rivoli, in order to reach Mantua by that route. The force with which this was to be attempted, was, at leaſt, double to that under Joubert. He therefore ordered large reinforcements from the Diviſion of Maſſena, and from other quarters, to Rivoli; where he arrived in perſon, with his ſtaff, at midnight, between the 13th and 14th of the month. He immediately gave orders to Joubert, to reſume ſome of the poſts which he had evacuated, particularly the Gate of St Marco, which was the key of the whole. Himſelf and the officers of his ſtaff ſpent the remainder of the night in reconnoitring the poſition of the Auſtrians, who, with a force amounting to twenty-five thouſand, occupied a ſtrong line, with their right at Caprino, and their left behind St Marco. The night proved unquiet to the out-poſts on both ſides, who kept up almoſt a conſtant fire upon one another, and the reſumption of the poſt at St Marco brought on a ſerious engagement.

On the 14th, at day-break, Joubert, with one part of his diviſion, attacked the Auſtrians upon the declivity of the hill of St Marco. The other part occupied the centre, and the reinforcements which had arrived in the night, were placed on the left. General Alvinzi, who had arranged his plan of attack ſome days before, found himſelf entirely diſconcerted: and being yet ignorant, both of the preſence of Bonaparte, and of the arrival of the reinforcements, he acted much in the dark. The battle, notwithſtanding, was long and obſtinate; and in the beginning of it, the French were driven from ſome

of

of their poſts; while a freſh body of Auſtrians advanced to the eminences between the Adige and the lake of Guarda, turned the flank of the French Army, and cut off their communication with Verona and Peſchiera. In this critical moment, Bonaparte detached two battalions to face this new column, and cauſed four pieces of light artillery to be ſo planted as to cannonade the right of their line. In the mean time, a reinforcement under General Rey, which had been more tardy in its advances than the reſt, came up, and took a poſition in the rear of the Auſtrian column; who being thus incloſed on all ſides, and hard preſſed by Bonaparte himſelf in front, were compelled to lay down their arms, to the number of four thouſand. The Auſtrians were now every where put to the route, and purſued during the whole ſucceeding night.

The Imperialiſts ſtill continued in poſſeſſion of Corona, but were diſabled from acting offenſively. Joubert was therefore ordered to attack them the next day, which he did in the following manner. General Murat marched the whole night of the 14th with a party of light infantry, and in the morning appeared on the heights of Montebaldo, which commanded Corona, while the Auſtrians, who were poſted there, were fiercely attacked by Joubert himſelf, on the other ſide. Perceiving their retreat cut off, they were ſoon thrown into confuſion; and almoſt the whole party were either taken priſoners, or drowned, in attempting to ſwim acroſs the Adige. In theſe engagements, which are all included, by the French, under the general name of the battle of Rivoli, they are ſaid to have taken 13,000 priſoners, and nine pieces of cannon.

Another column of the Imperial army, conſiſting of 10,000 men, under General Provera, paſſed the Adige on the night of the 14th, and obliged the French under General

General Guyeux, who guarded the river in that quarter, to fall back from Ronco. Bonaparte, therefore, detached General Victor, with a ſtrong reinforcement, to Roverbella, and ordered Maſſena to take the ſame route, to ſtop, if poſſible, the march of the Auſtrians. Provera, however, continued to proceed with rapidity, though haraſſed by the enemy, till he forced the paſſage of Anguiari. The French General, Angereau, had collected his forces, with a view of falling upon Provera's column; but could only come up with his rear guard. Theſe he attacked, and cut off, taking 2000 priſoners, and ſixteen pieces of cannon. Still General Provera puſhed forward, till he arrived, on the 15th, at the ſuburb of St George, one of the poſts where Mantua was blockaded, his force being reduced by this time to 6000 men. The French, under General Mirolis, who commanded at this poſt, were inferior in point of numbers, but they were ſtrongly entrenched. In anſwer to a ſummons ſent him by Provera, the Frenchman ſaid, he would fight, but not ſurrender. The Auſtrian General attacked the poſt, but found it impoſſible to carry it. He then turned his attention to another poſt, La Favorita, which he expected to force, aſſiſted by a ſortie from the town, which he had concerted with General Wurmſer, and ſo to make good his entrance into Mantua.

This deſign did not eſcape the penetration of Bonaparte. To prevent its execution, he determined to ſurround Provera's column, and force it to ſurrender. He had previouſly diſpatched General Serrurier with all the forces that he could ſuddenly withdraw from the other poſts of blockade, to reinforce that of La Favorita; and now he ordered thither detachments from the other diviſions of his army, who, by the moſt rapid marches,

marches, arrived in time to effect their purpoſe. An hour before day-break, on the morning of the 16th, the Auſtrians attacked La Favorita; and General Wurmſer, at the ſame time, ordered a ſpirited ſortie from the town, to co-operate with them. The detachment from the garriſon met with ſuch a warm reception from a party which General Victor had brought up during the night, that they were forced to retire into the city, without being able to effect a junction with Provera. At the ſame moment Serrurier advanced, in order to block up Provera, between this poſt and St Georges. Diſorder and terror now pervaded the ranks of the Auſtrians, and the General demanded a capitulation. The priſoners who ſurrendered were 6000 infantry, and 700 cavalry, with 22 pieces of cannon.

The ſeveral diviſions of the French army continued to haraſs the diſperſed remains of the Auſtrian force. The diviſion of Maſſena repaired to Vicenza on the 23d, and from thence to Baſſano, in purſuit of a body of Imperialiſts, who had retreated to the other ſide of the defiles of the Brenta. A detachment under General Menard came up with them, and, after a warm conteſt, made 800 priſoners. On the 27th, Joubert came up with their rear-guard, and took 300 priſoners. The Auſtrians continued to retreat, with ſome loſs in various ſkirmiſhes, till they entrenched themſelves in the valley of Galliano, and ſeemed diſpoſed to diſpute the entrance of the republicans into Trent. But, preſſed by Generals Belicard and Vial, they were obliged to give up their poſition, with the loſs of 300 priſoners. Trent ſubmitted to the French with little or no reſiſtance.

The fall of Mantua was the neceſſary conſequence of the total defeat of the Auſtrian armies. It ſurrendered by capitulation on the 2d of February. The terms

were honourable, as the valour and good conduct of Marſhal Wurmſer and his brave garriſon deſerved. The garriſon were priſoners, with the exception of the veteran Mareſhal himſelf and his ſuit; but they were all allowed to march out with the honours of war. Wurmſer was, at this time, ſeventy years of age. It was ſaid that during the blockade of Mantua, the garriſon had devoured 5000 horſes; and it is certain that the French, when they entered it, found very few alive in the place.

Another conſequence of the defeat of the Auſtrians, was the invaſion of the papal territories by the French. In conſequence of his late treaty with the Emperor, the the Pope had ſent ſuccours into the field, to General Alvinzi; and had ſhewn an earneſt deſire for the expulſion of the invaders; though his weakneſs and timidity would not permit him to contribute much towards it. On this account, General Victor was ordered to penetrate with his diviſion to Rome, even previous to the ſurrender of Mantua. And as ſoon as the capitulation was ſigned, Bonaparte himſelf ſet off to ſuperintend the operation of this army. The invaders ſlept at Imola, the firſt town within the Pope's dominions, on the night of the firſt of February. The papal troops made but a feeble reſiſtance. In a few days the republicans arrived at Loretto, where they took poſſeſſion of the famous Madonna, which they found to be only an image of wood. In her chapel they found a treaſure of about three millions of livres; though a great part of her riches had been previouſly carried away or ſecreted. The whole marche of Ancona ſubmitted, with little ſhew of reſiſtance; and on the 19th Bonaparte had his head-quarters at Tolentino. The Pope, now reduced to the loweſt extremity, addreſſed a ſubmiſſive epiſtle

to

to the French General, earneſtly ſoliciting an amicable termination of the conteſt; and diſpatched two eccleſiaſtics, with full powers to conclude a treaty. And Bonaparte condeſcended to grant him peace, upon the following terms: His Holineſs renounced all connection with the coalition againſt France, engaged to diſband all the troops that he had raiſed for the ſupport of the war, and to ſhut his ports againſt all the powers at war with the Republic. He agreed, without reſerve, to the annexation of Avignon, and the county of Venaiſſin to France, and transferred to the republic the legations of Bologna, Ferrara and Romagna. And he conſented to pay thirty millions of livres, twenty of them in ſpecie, and the reſt in diamonds, and other valuables, with 16,000 horſes, as a ranſom for that portion of his dominions, of which he was permitted to retain a precarious poſſeſſion.

For the reprieve which was thus granted him, his Holineſs was probably indebted to the exertions of Auſtria, in making freſh preparations. For, while Bonaparte was advancing towards Rome, the Emperor was exerting himſelf, in a manner ſcarcely credible, to recruit his diſcomfited army, and the command of it was given to the Archduke Charles, whoſe victorious career in Germany had inſpired the Auſtrians with ardent hopes of ſucceſs. In the beginning of March, the French army occupied the Banks of the Lavis and the Piave; while the army of the Archduke lay on the oppoſite ſhore of the laſt mentioned river, with its centre behind Cordevoli, and its right ſupported by the Adige towards Salurne. At the approach of General Maſſena, on the tenth of March, the Auſtrians evacuated the line of Cordevoli, and marched to Bellurne. On the 12th, at day-break, they left their camp of La

Campagna, upon Gen. Serrurier's croſſing the Piave. On the ſame day, Gen. Guyeux croſſed that river, and next day fell in with the rear-guard of the Auſtrians, and, after a ſlight ſkirmiſh, took one hundred priſoners. Maſſena, in the mean time, with his diviſion, having arrived at Bellurne, the Imperialiſts retreated towards Cadore. Maſſena purſued, completely hemmed in their rear-guard, and took ſeven hundred priſoners, among whom was General Luſignan, who commanded their centre diviſion.

On the 16th, at eleven o'clock, three different diviſions of the French army met on the banks of the Tagliamento, oppoſite to where the Auſtrians were poſted, who appeared diſpoſed to diſpute the paſſage. After ſome time ſpent in preparations, the republicans plunged into the river, and put their opponents to the route, after a feeble reſiſtance, chiefly made by the Auſtrian cavalry. They attacked the village of Gradiſka in the evening, and carried it; ſo that the Archduke himſelf had ſcarcely time to make his eſcape. In this day's engagement, the Auſtrians loſt between four and five hundred priſoners; among whom was one general, and ſeveral other officers of rank. The enemy likewiſe got poſſeſſion of ſix pieces of cannon.

Bonaparte, ſenſible of the ſpirit and activity of his antagoniſt, allowed him no time to collect his forces. On the 18th, a part of the French army took poſſeſſion of Palmanova, while another advanced to Oiopa and Gemona. On the day following, General Serrurier blockaded the town of Gradiſka, which was taken on the 20th, with 6000 priſoners, the flower of the Archduke's army. The ſame day, General Maſſena advanced to the bridge of Caſſaſola, drove the Auſtrians from their entrenchments, at the point of the bayonet, and took

600

600 priſoners. On the 21ſt the French entered Goritz, where they found four hoſpitals, containing 1500 ſick and wounded, with all the Auſtrian magazines, which Prince Charles had not time to remove. On the 23d Guyeux encountered a body of Auſtrians who were ſtrongly entrenched at Puſero, defeated them, and took one hundred priſoners, and two pieces of cannon. The ſame day, another diviſion entered Trieſte.

On the 24th Maſſena, with his diviſion, was at Tarvis, where a column of Auſtrians was hemmed in, between his forces and thoſe of Guyeux. But on the morrow, having been reinforced from Clagenfurt, where Prince Charles had his head-quarters, they were encouraged to hazard an engagement, and attacked Maſſena. After a ſevere battle, the Auſtrians were defeated; three of their general officers, and a number of privates were taken priſoners; and the Emperor's cuiraſſiers, who had juſt arrived from the Rhine were almoſt totally deſtroyed. In the mean time Guyeux purſued the column which he had defeated at Puſero, as far as the Chinſe, an Auſtrian poſt well fortified, which was carried by aſſault, after an obſtinate engagement. Perceiving that this poſt was taken, the Auſtrian column precipitated its march, and fell into the midſt of Maſſena's diviſion, who, after a ſlight conteſt, made them all priſoners. By the events of this day, 30 pieces of cannon, 400 waggons loaded with baggage, and 5000 priſoners, among whom were four generals, fell into the hands of the conquerors.

While ſuch uninterrupted ſucceſs attended the main army of the republicans, their left wing, or the diviſions of the Tyrol, as they were called, were little leſs ſucceſsful. Advancing from the Adige, the Lavis, and the

the Brenta, to join the commander in chief, they ſurrounded a body of Auſtrians, under General Laudon, and an obſtinate engagement enſued; in which the Imperialiſts loſt 2000 men killed, 4000 taken priſoners, and three pieces of cannon. Laudon then retired to the left bank of the Adige, where he was again attacked, and again defeated, by Joubert, who took 600 priſoners. Joubert then entered Botzen, and, leaving a ſufficient force to purſue the flying army under Laudon, marched directly to Clauſen. Here the Auſtrians, availing themſelves of a ſtrong poſition, put themſelves in a poſture of defence. The action was doubtful for ſome time; but at length the French prevailed, and 1500 Auſtrians became priſoners of war. Immediately after this, Joubert took poſſeſſion of Brixen.

Bonaparte allowed no reſt to his own army, any more than to his opponents. And indeed, to the rapidity of his movements a great part of his ſucceſs is to be aſcribed. After the battles of Tarvis and La Chinſe, three diviſions of his army paſſed the defiles which lead from the Venetian States into Germany, and encamped at Wiſbach, on the banks of the Drave. On the 29th of March, Maſſena advanced upon Clagenfurt, the Capital of Carinthia, where the Archduke had his headquarters. He was met by the Auſtrians, about a league from the place; but they were too much diſpirited to make any formidable reſiſtance. After loſing 200 priſoners, and two pieces of cannon, they abandoned Clagenfurt, which the French entered the ſame evening. Thus were the Auſtrians, in the courſe of this ſhort campaign, driven from the Venetian States, from the higher and the lower Carniola, from Carinthia, and from the whole of the Tyroleſe, with the loſs of 20,000 priſoners, beſides all that were ſlain in battle, and all the

the priſoners that were taken before the Archduke aſſumed the Command.

In the midſt of this career of Victory, Bonaparte wrote a letter to the Archduke, containing Overtures of peace. He mentions no terms, nor propoſes any mode of negotiation, but only deplores the continuance of the war, and intimates, that if the Archduke could have influence to bring about peace, he would deſerve to be called the Benefactor of the human race, and the Saviour of the German Empire. The Prince returned a polite anſwer, the ſubſtance of which was, that he neither thought it his province to enter into any diſcuſſion of the principles upon which the war was carried on, nor had he any power from the Emperor to conclude a treaty of peace.

The laſt effort of the Auſtrians, on this occaſion, was an attempt to excite the peaſantry of the Tyrol to riſe in a maſs, and repel the invaders. This was ſo far ſucceſsful, that the diviſions under Generals Laudon and Kerpen, were ſtrengthened by ſome ſeaſonable but undiſciplined levies. The French columns under Joubert had been much weakened, both by diſeaſe and by frequent combats. By thoſe means, the tide began to turn againſt the French, in that quarter. On the 4th of April they were driven from Botzen by General Laudon, and the next day from Brixen, where the two Auſtrian columns, under Laudon and Kerpen formed a junction.

Bonaparte, notwithſtanding, continued to advance with his main army. On the 2d of April, General Maſſena, with the advanced guard, attacked the Auſtrians in the Defiles, between Freiſach and Neumark; after a moſt bloody engagement, the latter were totally defeated, leaving the field of battle covered with dead; and

and loſing about 600 priſoners; and the following morning the French entered Neumark. On the 4th, Bonaparte's head-quarters were at Scheiffling, and the advanced guard reached to Hunſmark, where the imperialiſts were again defeated, with the loſs of 900 men, killed, wounded, and made priſoners.

While thoſe things were tranſacted in Italy, new ſcenes of carnage were preparing on the Rhine. The French army of the Sambre and Meuſe had been entruſted to General Hoche, with whom the reader is already acquainted. Moreau was continued in the command of the army of the Rhine and Moſelle. In the beginning of April, Hoche gave notice of the termination of the Armiſtice, and ſoon after paſſed the Rhine, by the Bridge of Nieuwied. After an ineffectual attempt, on the part of the Auſtrian General, Kray, to renew the Armiſtice, a ſmart action commenced on the 18th of the month, in which the French were victorious, and took, of the Auſtrians, according to Hoche's report, 4000 priſoners. The conquerors purſued, and drove the Imperialiſts from Ukareth and Altenkirchen; while General Ney, with his diviſion, proceeded with the utmoſt rapidity to Dierdorf, where he defeated a body of 6000 Auſtrians, with the loſs of 1000 killed, wounded, and priſoners.

About the ſame time, General Moreau croſſed the Rhine, and ſome ſkirmiſhes took place between the outpoſts of the contending armies. But the further proſecution of hoſtilities was prevented, by an event which is now to be recorded.

Though Prince Charles, in his anſwer to Bonaparte's letter, diſclaimed any power to conclude a treaty, there can be no doubt of his having communicated the contents of that letter to his brother the Emperor. And the

the deſperate ſituation of that Monarch's affairs, made him gladly embrace any overture of that kind. His army was deſtroyed, a victorious enemy was advancing towards his capital, nor did it ſeem poſſible for him to collect ſuch a force in proper time, as might have any probability of ſtopping the progreſs of the French General. He therefore tranſmitted powers to the Archduke, in conſequence of which that Prince ſent an Aid-de-camp to the French General, to requeſt a ſuſpenſion of arms for only four hours. This Bonaparte at firſt refuſed; apprehending that the Archduke only meant to gain time, that he might form a junction with General Spork, who was advancing towards him with a freſh reinforcement. A correſpondence, however, immediately commenced between the two Generals, which iſſued, at firſt, in an Armiſtice, and finally in adjuſting preliminaries of peace, which were ſigned on the 18th of April, by Bonaparte on the part of the French Republic, and by the Neapolitan Miniſter, on the part of the Emperor.

Among other articles, theſe preliminaries contained a direct ceſſion of the Netherlands to France, with the Dutchy of Luxemburg, &c. an acknowledgment of the independence of the new Italian Republics, and the free Navigation of the Rhine. Some believed, that, by a ſecret article, the French engaged to indemnify the Emperor, by a part of the Venetian territory, and by the ſecularization of ſome eccleſiaſtical ſtates in Germany. What was the motive that influenced Bonaparte, or the Directory, who thought themſelves his Maſters, to propoſe ſuch a treaty in the midſt of their career of victory, it was not then eaſy to conjecture. The terms were, no doubt, more advantageous to France, than ever an Emperor of Germany ſubmitted to before.

But, if they had continued the war a ſhort time longer, there was a great probability, that they might have dictated terms ſtill more advantageous, in the heart of Vienna itſelf. But they afterwards gave ſufficient evidence, that their principal reaſon for it was, that they might be at liberty to employ their whole force againſt Britain, with whom they reſolved to have no peace, till ſhe, like the other Powers of Europe, was brought to ſubmit to ſuch terms as they ſhould dictate.

The tranſactions which are now to be related, ſerve to make it evident to all the world, what was the true diſpoſition of the French Government; and of their General, who already took upon himſelf the principal management of their armies and military operations; how little reſpect they paid, either to juſtice or the faith of treaties, when they ſtood in the way of their ambition or thirſt of conqueſt. Though their main deſigns were againſt Britain, it was no eaſy matter to tranſport thither the conquering army of Italy, and they muſt not be kept in idleneſs. To give them employment, a ſyſtem of aggreſſion againſt neutral, but feeble and unprotected ſtates, was adopted; which has ſince been carried to ſuch an abominable exceſs, as has diſgraced that government in the eyes of their beſt friends, and blaſted the laurels of Bonaparte, even in the opinion of thoſe who thought them well earned.

The government of Venice, though originally republican, had long ago degenerated into a moſt tyrannical oligarchy. The whole power of the ſtate being veſted in a few overgrown families, ſupported by a complex and myſterious organization of the executive power. But to remedy this was no buſineſs of the French Nation, who had bound themſelves by a decree, which they ſtill affected to conſider as a ſtanding law, not to interfere with

with the internal affairs of other nations. That the Venetians might view the rapid advances of the French with a jealous and timid eye; and would have rejoiced in their expulſion from Italy, can eaſily be believed. But while they had committed no acts of hoſtility againſt them, the French could have no right to puniſh them for their thoughts.

On the 9th of April, however, Bonaparte addreſſed a Manifeſto to the Doge of Venice, complaining of the hoſtile diſpoſition, which he ſaid that government had always manifeſted towards the French, and demanding ſatisfaction for recent injuries. The Senate immediately replied, that they had always wiſhed to maintain a good underſtanding with the French Republic, and aſſured him, that they would take the moſt efficacious methods, to diſcover and bring to puniſhment the Authors of aſſaſſinations or other injuries committed on individuals of the French army. On the firſt of May, that General, having no longer any employment for his troops againſt the Emperor, publiſhed another Manifeſto, in which he entered more particularly into the enormities which had been committed. He charged the Venetian Government with having armed 40,000 peaſants, and uniting them with ten regiments of Sclavonians, while the French army was engaged in the defiles of Stiria, in order to cut off the main body from the places which were occupied by the rear. He ſaid that through the whole of the *Terra Firma*, a perſecution had been inſtituted againſt all thoſe perſons by whom the French had been favourably received; that in the ſquares, coffee-houſes, and other public places in Venice, the French had been inſulted; and, in fine, that numbers of Frenchmen had been aſſaſſinated with impunity, in different parts of the Venetian territory. And

he concluded with a ſtrong inſinuation, that the bare puniſhment of the aſſaſſins would not ſatisfy the vengeance of the French nation.

To all this it might have been anſwered, that the French had openly violated the neutrality of the Venetian territory, by wantonly ſeizing upon ſome parts of it, and quartering troops in ſome of the principal towns, under pretence that theſe places were neceſſary to the operations of the French army againſt the Imperialiſts; that, though the Venetians levied ſome troops, it was no more than was neceſſary for their own ſecurity, placed as they were, in the midſt of contending armies, and ſurrounded with conſpirators; and that though ſome intemperate acts were committed, by individuals, or by the populace, driven to madneſs by the rapacity of the French ſoldiers, the Government was ſo far from countenancing theſe, that they were willing to inſtitute a ſevere enquiry, and rigidly to puniſh the authors of them. But as the Venetians could not convey their anſwers by the mouth of their cannon, it was vain to attempt to exculpate themſelves in words. Commiſſioners were, therefore, diſpatched to wait upon Bonaparte at Milan, and about the middle of May, a treaty was concluded; the terms of which were, that the whole of the Terra Firma ſhould be ceded to the French, a part of it to be reſtored when the ſyſtem of Italy ſhould be eſtabliſhed; that the fort of Venice ſhould be occupied by French troops; that the ſtate ſhould pay eighty millions of livres to France; and finally, that the Government of Venice ſhould be changed. The laſt article was almoſt immediately put in execution. The Senate and Council of ten were aboliſhed; the three ſtate inquiſitors were put under arreſt;

reſt; a proviſional adminiſtration was appointed, and a Municipality of fifty Members was choſen, under the preſidency of ſix Commiſſaries, who were appointed by the French General.

Suppoſing all the charges brought againſt the Venetian government to have been juſt, this was ſurely an adequate puniſhment for all their crimes. But the vengeance of the French did not ſtop here. The Venetian territory was immediately filled with French troops. And the only article of the treaty which they took care to fulfil, beſides the overturning of the government, was the levying of the contributions. To crown all, on the final adjuſtment of the definitive treaty with the Emperor, which was concluded at Campo Formio, a village near Udina, on the 17th of October, the whole of the territory of Venice was given away by France to the Emperor, as if it had been her own property. Thus was one of the moſt ancient ſtates in Europe, and once the moſt powerful, annihilated by the ſtroke of a pen; and her people made ſubject to an abſolute government, without aſking their conſent; and all this by a republic pretending to bear arms in the cauſe of liberty.

By the capture of Venice, into which a hoſtile army had never entered, ſince it became an independent ſtate, the French were put in poſſeſſion of a treaſure which was of much importance to them. They ſeized upon all the naval force of the Venetians, and the vaſt ſtores of every kind, which their magazines and arſenals contained. And they added to their territory the Venetian iſlands, in the Adriatic and Archipelago; moſt of which are valuable, not only for the command which they give of thoſe ſeas, but alſo for the productions which they yield to commerce. By the treaty of peace, they ceded to the Emperor the iſlands of the Adriatic; but

but thoſe of the Levant, with the Venetian eſtabliſhments in Albania, lower down than the gulf of Loudrino, they retained in their own hand.

The fall of Venice was immediately followed by that of Genoa. For a long time previous to the French revolution, frequent animoſities had taken place between the patrician and the popular party in that ſtate. Since the invaſion of Italy, the neighbourhood of the French armies encouraged the turbulent among the burghers to expect, that they might raiſe themſelves nearer to an equality with the nobles. In the beginning of May, this year, a formidable inſurrection took place in the city, excited by French emiſſaries, and a club of perſons attached to the principles of French democracy. The inſurgents inveſted a man of the illuſtrious name of Doria, with the chief command among them, ſeized upon the principal poſts in the city, ſet at liberty all the priſoners, excepting thoſe who were confined for capital crimes; and loudly demanded the abolition of the patrician government, and the eſtabliſhment of a more democratical form.

In this extremity, the leſſer council prevailed with the workmen employed in the port, to unite with the ſoldiers againſt the inſurgents: and a deſperate engagement enſued in which the party on the ſide of government prevailed. Of the inſurgents many were ſlain, among whom was Philip Doria their leader, and ſeveral perſons who were recognized to be French. Inſtead of making a proper uſe of their victory, the conquering party began immediately to plunder. And, finding that more was to be gained in this way, by oppoſing, than by ſupporting government, many of them joined the oppoſite party, and fell to plundering their employers. In the mean time, the Inſurgents ſent couriers to Bonaparte,

Bonaparte, to ſolicit his aſſiſtance. And he, under pretence of reſtoring peace, ſent a column of French troops into Genoa. In conſequence of which, the great council was convened, or ſuch members of it as remained in the city. After ſome deliberation they decreed, that the government was diſſolved, diveſted themſelves of all authority, and appointed a proviſionary committee, to preſerve order, till a new conſtitution ſhould be prepared. That committee having declined to act, the authority was placed in a temporary adminiſtration, choſen by the leaders of the mob.

This new invented government iſſued its mandates, to recal the fugitives into the city, on pain of the confiſcation of their property; (the principal part of the nobility having left it at the beginning of the inſurrection); and enjoined the inhabitants of the territory of the ſtate to ſend their deputies to Genoa, with powers to lay the foundation of a new organization. Under the direction of Bonaparte, a new conſtitution was proviſionally adopted, upon the model of that of France, and the State of Genoa became the Ligurian Republic. To complete the farce, the Genoeſe populace were flattered with a renewal of the treaty with the French nation; though it was manifeſt to all the world, that they could be conſidered in no other light than as conquered ſubjects of France.

When it was found that preliminaries of peace were ſettled between France and the Emperor, it was expected that the Directory might be diſpoſed to make peace alſo with Britain. And his Majeſty took the proper ſteps to ſet on foot a new negotiation. But, before giving any account of it, it will be neceſſary to take a view of the ſtate of affairs in France, that the reader may ſee with

with whom his Majeſty was to treat, and what was the true cauſe of the ſudden breaking up of the treaty.

In the beginning of this year, the finances of France continued in a very deranged ſtate. This the Directory repreſented, in a meſſage to the Councils, in very ſtrong terms, prognoſticating the total ruin of the Republic, unleſs an effectual remedy was applied. The Councils had not the ſame apprehenſions with the Directory on this ſubject, as they imputed the deficiency of the revenues to their miſapplication by the Directory, who employed them rather for the eſtabliſhment of their own power, than for the intereſt of the Republic. But while they were deliberating upon this, their attention was called off by a meſſage from the Directory, on the 31ſt of January, announcing what was called a Royaliſt Conſpiracy, the particulars of which were laid before them on the 4th of February.

The principal conſpirators were ſaid to be one Dunan, a grocer, who had been an officer in the old ſervice, but under another name, and Brothier, an Abbe. Theſe two were ſaid to be furniſhed with ſpecial powers from Louis XVIII. and had choſen for their aſſiſtants two more, named Lavilleurnoy and Poly. Their plan was ſaid to conſiſt of twenty-nine articles, all wild, extravagant and unpracticable; to ſeize upon the city of Paris, to overturn the government, and place Louis on the throne, by the help of England (no doubt). As a part of the charge againſt them was their enliſting ſoldiers for the enemy, they were remitted, by an arrete of the Directory, to a military tribunal. They appealed to the general Tribunal of Caſſation; but their appeal was rejected, and by a military tribunal they were tried. That court declared all the four guilty of death, but commuted their puniſhment; ſentencing Dunan and

and Brothier to ten years imprisonment, Poly to five, and Lavillebrnoy to one only. The same day on which this sentence was passed, which was the 8th of April, a new arrete of the Directory ordered them to be again indicted, before the ordinary tribunals, under pretence that the Court Martial had no power to take cognizance of any of their crimes, excepting that of enlisting soldiers for the enemy: and they were told that no hopes of pardon remained for them, unless they should redeem their lives by a free confession. A confession was accordingly made, so full and free, and containing so many extravagant circumstances, that no person of common judgment could give credit to it. Among other things, they said that they hoped to restore the throne by the help of the two councils; that about two months before, a list was sent to the king of the members who were for monarchy, amounting to 184; and that on the night before they were arrested, another list had been offered them, containing the names of 60 more. This confession made by Dunan, saved not only his own life, but that of all his associates. From all these circumstances, it was generally believed that the whole plot was a fiction, contrived by the Directory, with a view to establish their own authority upon the ruin of that of the councils.

In the mean time, the period approached, when, according to the existing constitution, one third of the legislative body were to be changed. On the 5th of March, the two councils drew the lots which were to deprive so many of their seats. And as the time of election drew near, the whole nation was agitated by the efforts of contending factions. The Directory proposed that an oath should be taken by the electors, previous to their entering upon their functions; by which they were to

bind themſelves to defend the Republic and the Conſtitution againſt the attacks of royalty and anarchy. This was vehemently oppoſed in the councils, as a violation of the conſtitution itſelf; but, after a ſcene of tumult, the Directorial party prevailed.

The elections were, for the moſt part, conducted in a peaceable manner; and the primary aſſemblies, in the choice of electors, ſhewed a degree of moderation beyond what was expected. On the 20th of May, the new members were introduced. In the Council of Five Hundred, all the elections were confirmed except that of Barrere, who had been choſen by the diſtrict of Tarbis, while, by exiſting laws, he was an outlaw. In the Council of Ancients, no exception was taken againſt any of the elections.

After the inſtallation of the new third, the debates concerning the public expenditure were reſumed. The party in oppoſition to the Directory were conſiderably ſtrengthened by the late elections. They were likewiſe encouraged by the choice of Barthelemy, perhaps the moſt reſpectable character then in France, to be one of the Directory, in the room of Letourneur, who went out by lot; as both he and Carnot took the ſide of the popular party. On the 18th, a decree was propoſed by the Committee of Public Finance, and paſſed by the Council of Five Hundred, the direct object of which was to take the whole power of the purſe out of the hands of the Directory. Next day, a member on the other ſide propoſed a repeal of that decree, but it was negatived, by paſſing to the order of the day.

The two parties were now at open war. The conduct of the Directory, in various inſtances, was ſeverely canvaſſed in the councils; particularly in regard to the management of the colonies, to their treatment of the

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American States, and to their violation of liberty, by opening private letters. Even the procedure of Bonaparte, relative to the government of Venice, did not eſcape ſcrutiny. And probably to this the Directorial party were indebted for their final ſucceſs in the ſtruggle; as it might induce the army to take their ſide of the queſtion. Both Councils were almoſt unanimous in reſtoring to the Prince of Conti and the Dutcheſs of Orleans, their eſtates and privileges. A decree was paſſed in the Council of Five Hundred, for reinſtating the relations of emigrants in their property, and another in favour of baniſhed prieſts, which gave great umbrage to the Directory; but the Council of Ancients, who wiſhed to act as mediators between the parties, negatived the reſolution which reſtricted the Directory with reſpect to the public expenditure, on the 27th of July, and they kept that which related to the prieſts under diſcuſſion.

The minds of the people were inflamed by theſe proceedings. Some adhered to the one party, and ſome to the other, and clubs were formed on both ſides. The different parties diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their dreſs; and outrages were ſometimes committed, when they encountered one another in the ſtreets. A ſtop was, at length, put to theſe, by a decree of the Councils, diſſolving and prohibiting all political ſocieties. The army ſhewed themſelves firmly attached to the Directory. The army of Italy led the way in ſending addreſſes to them. That ſent from the diviſion of Maſſena may be an example of the ſtyle of theſe addreſſes. After lamenting, in ſtrong terms, the return of emigrants, the favour ſhewn to nonjuring prieſts, &c. they conclude with the following words: "Does the road to Paris preſent more obſtacles than that to Vienna? No; it will

" be opened to us by the republicans who have remain-
" ed faithful to liberty. United, we will defend it,
" and our common enemies ſhall have lived." The other armies of the Republic all followed the example of that of Italy.

The Directory, ſuſpecting that ſome of the miniſters were in the intereſt of the oppoſite party, made a total change among them. This excited freſh murmurs in the Council of Five Hundred, who, in revenge, made an attempt to remove Barras, who was more particularly obnoxious to them, from the Directory, under pretence that he was not of the age required by the conſtitution. But not being able to prove this, they failed in that attempt. Their jealouſy of the deſigns of the Directory, then prompted them to ſet about re-organizing the national guard. This task was committed to Pichegru, who was now their Preſident, and Willot. On the 20th of July, the former preſented a plan for that purpoſe, the leading feature of which was to deprive the Directory of the right to nominate the officers. This plan, after ſome debate, was adopted, and reduced into the form of a decree.

In the mean time, ſome regiments of the army of the Sambre and the Meuſe had approached within ſeven leagues of Paris; whereas, by an article of the conſtitution, the Directory could not give orders for ſuch a march, without incurring the penalty of a ten year's impriſonment. Of this the Council were informed on the 20th of July; and the ſame day they ſent a meſſage to the Directory, who returned an anſwer before the cloſe of the ſitting; ſignifying that they were ignorant of the circumſtance till yeſterday; and that, as ſoon as they knew it, they ſent an order for the troops to depart. It would weary the reader's patience, to recite all

all the altercations that took place, and all the meſſages that paſſed and repaſſed on this ſubject, and likewiſe in relation to the inflammatory addreſſes of the army, from this time till the 4th of September.

During this period both parties had been making preparations, to cruſh their opponents by force; but the meaſures purſued by the Council were more tardy, and leſs energetic, than thoſe of the oppoſite party. Yet the Directory were far from being unanimous in the cauſe. Reubel and Barras were decided in their oppoſition to the Council of Five Hundred. Carnot and Barthelemy were ſecretly attached to them. La Reveillere heſitated ſome time, but at laſt was completely gained over by his old colleagues, and concurred in their meaſures againſt the majority of the Councils.

When the 4th of September was come, as early as three o'clock in the morning, the majority of the Directory cauſed the alarm bells to be rung, and the halls of both Councils to be ſurrounded by a military force. The execution of this daring meaſure was committed to General Angereau, who had been ſent from Italy by Bonaparte for that purpoſe, under pretence of carrying a meſſage. He repaired to the barracks, and addreſſed the guards of the legiſlative body, aſſuring them that he only came to ſave the conſtitution and the republic from a royaliſt conſpiracy. He was anſwered by ſhouts of *Vive la Republique.* He then led them to the hall, where he found the Preſident and ſeveral other members of the Council of Five Hundred. He ſeized Pichegru, it is ſaid, with his own hands, and ordered eighteen others to be arreſted. Both the halls were ſhut up; the Councils were ordered to meet, that of Ancients in the School of Surgery, and that of Five Hundred in a Theatre, in the ſuburb of St Germain, while the

the conſpirators, as they were now called, were ſhut up in the Temple. The minority in the Directory were implicated with their friends of the Councils. Carnot took advantage of the tumult, and fled; Barthelemy calmly awaited the ſtorm; and was put under arreſt.

The three Directors publiſhed their victory in a proclamation, in which they pretended to vindicate their own conduct, repreſented the other party in the blackeſt colours, exhorted the citizens to peace and harmony, and to truſt in their Magiſtrates, meaning themſelves; and promiſing protection to their perſons and property; and that every citizen ſhould enjoy liberty, happineſs, and tranquillity, in their fulleſt extent. The remnants of the two Councils having aſſembled in the places allotted them, ſent a meſſage to inform the Directory that they were inſtalled, and to demand an account of the reaſons of what had been done. To this the Directory replied, that their meaſures had been dictated by ſtrong neceſſity,—that further delay would have delivered the Republic into the hands of its enemies,—and that, in matters of ſtate, extreme meaſures are to be appreciated only by circumſtances; and, after a ſhort account of the means by which the deſtruction of the Republic was to have been brought about, they *congratulated the Councils upon their eſcape!*

A Committee of five members was now appointed by the Council of Five Hundred, to conſider of the meaſures which ought to be purſued in the preſent criſis. They preſented a report the next day, in which they ſanctioned the conduct of the Directors; they pretended to draw a parallel between the proſperous ſtate of the Republic, previous to the laſt election, and the dangers with which it was then ſurrounded. And they concluded, by propoſing a reſolution, conſiſting of for-

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ty different articles, which were pretended to be ſubmitted to the diſcuſſion of the Council. All theſe, after a few amendments, were adopted by the Council; for now they durſt not do otherwiſe. By theſe articles, the operations of the primary, communal, and electoral Aſſemblies of forty-nine departments, are declared illegal and void; the perſons choſen by theſe aſſemblies, including the Members of the Legiſlative Body, were to ceaſe their functions, and the Directory were to fill up the vacancies. What had been decreed in favours of the relations of emigrants was revoked, and ſixty-five perſons were to be tranſported without delay, and without trial, to ſuch place as the Directory ſhould determine. Of theſe forty-two were Members of the Council of Five Hundred, eleven were of the Council of Ancients, and two were Directors.

Thus was the ſixth Revolution brought about in France. And it muſt be manifeſt, to every thinking perſon, that though the authors of it differed from thoſe who had gone before them, in this, that they ſhed no blood; yet their conduct was not more conſiſtent with juſtice, with liberty, or with true humanity, than that of their predeceſſors had been. Their firſt ſtep was a direct violation of the Conſtitution, and an inſult upon the whole nation, in the outrage committed upon their repreſentatives. Their next ſtep, the diſannulling of the elections, robbed the people of their rights and privileges, by an act of tyranny more groſs than any thing that had been ſo much exclaimed againſt in the old government. As for the crowning act of their deſpotiſm, in the indiſcriminate baniſhment of ſuch a number of men, of very different characters, without the ſhadow of a trial, and conſequently without any proof of their guilt, it is impoſſible ſufficiently to paint its atrocity.

trocity. If the arbitrary deciſion of three men is ſufficient to deprive ſixty-five of their liberty; to expel them from their country, and to confiſcate their property, there muſt be an end of all liberty, and of all good government. The papers which were ſent to the Rump Councils, to prove theſe men's guilt, bore evident marks of forgery, and doubtleſs were fabricated for the purpoſe. If the papers had been all genuine, and the charges brought againſt theſe men had been all juſt and well founded, ſurely they were not all alike guilty; and why ſhould they all have been involved in the ſame puniſhment? Could any perſon of common candour believe that the prudent and peaceful Barthelemy ought to have ſtood upon the ſame level with one who had been a chief actor in the murders of Avignon? Another flagrant act of injuſtice, was empowering the Directory to fill up the vacancies which their own tyrannical procedure had made. Why ſhould a people be mocked with a ſhadow of the right of election, if their rulers may deprive them of it, and take it into their own hands when they pleaſe?

The Councils now proceeded, by the inſtructions of the Directors, to regulate the finances, and provide for the expences of the year. They then took under their cognizance the publiſhers of newſpapers. Sixty-ſeven of theſe were preſented, by a commiſſion inſtituted for that purpoſe, as worthy of the animadverſion of the Legiſlature. Two of them were excuſed, twenty-three were remitted to the Committee for further examination, and the other forty-five were baniſhed, under the ſame regulations as the late Members of the Councils had been. In this manner was the liberty of the preſs maintained in this land of freedom! The places of the two baniſhed Directors were filled up by two citizens little

little known, Letourneur, who had been Commiſſary for the Directory at Nantz, and Lambrechts, their Commiſſary at Bruſſels. The vacancies made in the Councils were ſuffered to continue till the time when the new elections were to take place.

About the ſame time that theſe things happened at Paris, there were ſome appearances of diſturbance in the ſouthern departments, but of an oppoſite nature. Lyons and Montauban had long been marked for their affection to Royalty, or rather their hatred of tyranny, under the name of Republicaniſm. The prevalence of the anti-directorial party in the Councils had ſtrengthened their hopes; but as ſoon as the ſucceſs of the oppoſite party was known, theſe appearances ſubſided, and through all France the people ſubmitted to their new uſurpers, with the ſame apparent cordiality as they had done to all that went before them.

It is now time to give ſome account of the attempt that was made by his Majeſty of Great Britain this year, to obtain peace with France. As early as the middle of May, one of the under Secretaries of State was ſent over to Vienna, with a view to concert meaſures with that Court, for the negociation of a general peace. Soon after it was known that the Emperor had ſigned the preliminaries of a ſeparate peace; a flag of truce was ſent over to France, with a letter from Lord Grenville to the Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, to know how the Directory ſtood affected towards a negociation with Britain; and matters were ſoon ſo far adjuſted, that Liſle was fixed upon for the place where the treaty was to be carried on, and a paſſport came over for our Ambaſſador; but the note in which it was incloſed, contained ſome expreſſions, of which an explanation was demanded. In conſequence of which the Directory a-

greed to treat with Great Britain, either ſeparately or on the part of the Allies of each nation.

Lord Malmeſbury was again appointed Plenipotentiary on the part of Great Britain. He arrived at Liſle in the beginning of July, and after exchanging his powers with the French Plenipotentiaries, who were four in number (Letourneur, Pleville, Pellay, and Maret), held his firſt conference of buſineſs with them on the 8th of the month. At this conference Lord Malmeſbury gave in to them his project, as the baſis of negociation. The leading articles of which were, that the ſtate of poſſeſſion before the war ſhould be adopted as the baſis; and that all conqueſts ſhould be reſtored, unleſs ſuch as ſhould be excepted in the preſent treaty, for which a blank was left. At the requeſt of the French Plenipotentiaries, he gave in a ſeparate note, which he intimated was only to be conſidered as confidential, inſiſting that Britain ſhould retain the iſland of Trinidad, which had belonged to Spain, and the Cape of Good Hope, and what had belonged to the Dutch in the iſland of Ceylon; but ſaid, that if, as they had aſſerted, it was contrary to their moſt poſitive inſtructions, to enter into any diſcuſſion about the ceſſion of any of thoſe places which belonged to France before the war, it was uſeleſs to dwell on that article.

On the 10th the French negotiators gave a note to his Lordſhip, in which they inſiſted upon three things. *1ſt*, That his Majeſty ſhould give up the title of King of France. *2dly*, That reſtitution ſhould be made of all the veſſels taken or deſtroyed at Toulon; and *3dly*, That his Majeſty ſhould renounce the mortgage on Belgium, which had been laid upon it for the loan to the Emperor. To the laſt of theſe demands it was anſwered, That the loans raiſed in England for the ſervice

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of the Emperor, reſted on the ſecurity of all the revenues of his hereditary dominions, and not upon the Netherlands. As to the other two requiſitions, he ſaid he could give no anſwer till he had further inſtructions from his Majeſty.

On the 16th Lord Malmeſbury received a note, informing him that the French Government, as a preliminary to all negociation, required the reſtitution of all his Britannic Majeſty's conqueſts. In anſwer to which his Lordſhip told them, That peace, upon ſuch terms, would not be heard of; and, he uſed every argumen to convince them of the unreaſonableneſs of the demand. But their reply was, That their inſtructions on that point were poſitive; and, therefore, they could not proceed till they had further orders from the Directory. A conſiderable delay now took place, which they ſaid was occaſioned by the neceſſity of the French Government conſulting with its Allies. At length, on the 28th of Auguſt, the French negotiators informed his Lordſhip that the anſwer from Holland was ſo unfavourable, that the Directory had remitted it to the Dutch Miniſters at Paris, who had been obliged to refer it back to their own Government, for new orders.

While the negotiation remained in this ſtate, the Revolution of the 4th of September took place. One of the firſt operations of the new Directory, was the recal of the four Commiſſaries, who had been now about three months employed in treating with Lord Malmeſbury at Liſle. They were replaced by Treilhard and Bonnier, who were inſtructed to demand categorically, Whether his Lordſhip was inveſted with powers to reſtore to France and its Allies all that had fallen into the hands of the Engliſh during the war? Upon his anſwering in the negative, he received a note the next day, which

was the 16th of September, containing an order from the Directory, to quit Liſle in twenty-four hours, and return to his Court for the powers demanded. He immediately demanded paſſports for himſelf and ſuit, and came home accordingly. Previous to his departure, the French Plenipotentiaries had told him that they had orders to continue at Liſle till the 16th of October, to await his return with more ample inſtructions.

Thus was the negociation entirely broken off, and that in a manner which left no doubt upon any thinking mind, as to where the blame lay. Lord Malmeſbury's powers had already been recognized as ſufficient. The project which he gave in at the beginning, had been adopted as the baſis of negotiation, and they had hitherto proceeded upon it. The demand which they now made, of a reſtitution of all his Majeſty's conqueſts, had been poſitively rejected in the entry of the buſineſs; and the Directory had given evidence of their departing from it, by the meaſures which they took for coming to ſome arrangement with their Allies. The ſtep, therefore, which the Directory now took, was a plain indication that they wiſhed for no peace with Britain, whatever they might pretend, unleſs ſhe were firſt reduced to ſubmit to the moſt diſgraceful terms that their inſolence might propoſe.

Portugal was now the only Power in Europe that continued its alliance with Britain; and Portugal alſo was engaged in a negociation with France. The Chevalier d'Aranjo was ſent as her Ambaſſador to Paris for that purpoſe. And he ſucceeded ſo far as to conclude a ſeparate treaty with the Republic, on the 10th of Auguſt. But inſtead of confirming the treaty within the time limited, the Directory declared it null and void; and ordered Aranjo to leave the territory of the Republic,

Republic, under the following pretence. It was one of the articles, it ſeems, that the Queen of Portugal was not to admit more than ſix armed veſſels at one time into her ports. The Directory ſaid, That "inſtead of "obſerving that article, ſhe had put the forts and prin-"cipal ports into the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh." How this was done none knew but themſelves. And if it had been done, who ever heard of a treaty being declared null, becauſe it was not fulfilled before it was ratified? But ſuch was the new policy of this new-modelled Directory. They expected that Spain would employ its forces in the conqueſt of Portugal, and the invaſion of that country was loudly talked of. But the Spaniards thought they ſuffered enough in the cauſe of France, by the victory of Sir John Jervis over their fleet, and the conſequent blockade and bombardment of Cadiz; nor were they diſpoſed at preſent to hazard any more.

But another treaty was attended with more ſucceſs, between the French republic and the King of Sardinia. It was a treaty of offenſive and defenſive alliance, the nature and tendency of which it will not be eaſy to explain. Its ratification by both the Councils took place after the Definitive Treaty with the Emperor was ſigned, and yet, by the ſecond Article of this treaty, it is declared, that "the preſent alliance, during the pre-"ſent war ſhall be directed ſolely againſt the Emperor "of Germany, and that the King of Sardinia ſhall "remain neuter with regard to England, and the "other powers at war with the republic." By another article, the parties mutually guarantee their reſpective poſſeſſions, which they now hold in Europe, both againſt external and internal enemies. So that the King of Sardinia engages to defend the Republic in the poſ-

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ſeſſion of the beſt part of his own dominions; and the French, on their part, engaged to aſſiſt him in quelling ſuch inſurrections as had lately taken place among his few remaining ſubjects, founded on the pretext of the rights of man.

Soon after the concluſion of the treaty of peace with the Emperor, the Directory publiſhed a proclamation to the army, in which they obſerved, that "tho' much "had been done, many kings conquered, many people "ſet free, and the republic eſtabliſhed by the ſtrength "of its arms, yet the country ſtill expected one ſacri-"fice more, ſince the enemy who had been the original "cauſe of all the horrors and miſeries they had ſuffer-"ed, remained yet to be cruſhed; and that the ſafety "of the Republic was endangered, while the Engliſh "government remained." This ſtrange preamble was followed by two reſolutions, ſtating, that an army ſhould be aſſembled on the coaſts of the Channel, to be called the *Army of England;* and that Bonaparte ſhould be appointed to command it.

After the publication of the manifeſto iſſued by the Britiſh Court, on the rupture of the negotiation at Liſle, the Directory found themſelves much puzzled how to anſwer it; as it contained much ſolid argument, and made an appeal to the Britiſh nation, and to all the world, concerning the juſtice of that cauſe, which could now only be decided by the force of arms. They were therefore obliged to ſatisfy themſelves with publiſhing another proclamation, in which, after their uſual manner, they ſubſtituted menace for argument, and bluſter for ſound reaſoning. In this, as in their former publications, they were careful to maintain the diſtinction between the government and the people of Great Britain. While the former was treated with the utmoſt con-

tempt,

tempt, the latter were mentioned as objects of high reſpect; and, truſting in the co-operation of thoſe in Britain, who were repreſented as groaning under their chains, they concluded that the beſt and ſpeedieſt means of humbling that tyranny, was to march the army of England, to dictate at London the terms of peace!

Happily they could only threaten or rail at Britain. It was not ſo with ſome others of their neighbours. The unhappy Swiſs, formerly the moſt free, and moſt inoffenſive people under the ſun, were now marked out as the objects of their oppreſſion and rapine. To colour their aggreſſion, they aſſerted that Switzerland, during the war, had been the conſtant ſcene of counter-revolutionary intrigue; that protection had openly been afforded to the enemies of the Republic, particularly by the Cantons bordering upon France, and above all by the Canton of Berne, the moſt powerful of them all. The firſt inſult committed upon the Swiſs, was demanding the diſmiſſion of Mr Wickham, the Britiſh Ambaſſador, under pretence that he had been active in promoting the royaliſt conſpiracy which they had detected among the Members of the two Councils. The Senate of Berne diſpatched meſſengers to Paris, to remonſtrate with the Directory. But the King, to ſave them from any further trouble on that head, ſent letters of recal to Mr Wickham, as ſoon as he underſtood that ſuch a demand had been made upon them. The Deputies, notwithſtanding, who had come from Berne, were ordered to quit Paris in a limited time; and, in their converſations with the Members of government, they found little encouragement to hope for the continuance of friendſhip between the Republic and the Cantons.

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As, in the treaty of Campo Formio, the Emperor had acted only for himself, as King of Hungary and Bohemia, the pacification of the empire was left to a Congress, which was to meet at Radstadt. But, as it did not meet till the beginning of next year, though the Plenipotentiaries from different powers assembled in the end of this year, any account of their proceedings must be deferred to another chapter.

While Bonaparte waited in Italy till the ratification of the treaty with the Emperor had taken place, he was employed in arranging the government which he had formed. The Cisalpine Republic, into which general name the provisional Republics called Transpadane and Cispadane had sunk, was formed upon the model of the French constitution. But General Bonaparte knowing, no doubt, that he was better qualified for such a business, than the people whom he told that he had made them free, took upon himself the arrangement of the different departments, and the nomination of those persons, who were to occupy places of trust and dignity. As soon as this government was thought to be duly installed, he left Italy, on the 20th of November, and returned to Paris. But he took Radstadt in his way, where he exchanged with Count Meerfeldt the ratification of the treaty of peace with the Emperor; and left behind him Treilhard and Bonnier, to represent the Great Republic in the ensuing Congress.

It will be recollected that in the treaty lately concluded with the Pope, the port of Ancona, on the shore of the Adriatic, was to continue in the hands of the French till the conclusion of a continental peace. Now that such a peace had been concluded, it ought to have been restored to the see of Rome. But the people of Ancona had been too long under French tutorage, not

to

to have learned ſomething of French principles. They therefore communicated to the French General who commanded in that quarter, their reſolution to be free; and to erect themſelves into a repreſentative Government, under the protection of France. He inſtantly acceded to their wiſh, and proclaimed the free and independent Republic of Ancona. The little Republic of St Marino likewiſe underwent a revolution at this time, and the power, which had hitherto been in the hands of the Nobles, was now diſtributed among all the Members of the Council of State.

The ſtate of Ireland became this year more alarming than ever. In conſequence of ſome murders, and other daring outrages, committed by diſaffected perſons in the county of Down, in the month of March, a memorial was preſented to the Lord Lieutenant; on account of which he held a Privy Council, by whoſe orders the whole county was proclaimed to be in a ſtate of diſturbance. General Lake, who commanded in the northern diſtrict, iſſued a proclamation, commanding the inhabitants to bring in any arms and ammunition that were in their hands, excepting peace-officers and men who ſerved in a military capacity; and one thouſand five hundred ſtand of arms were ſeized in the counties of Down and Antrim, by the fencible regiments which were ſtationed there.

Though the Britiſh Parliament, with great propriety, declined taking cognizance of theſe matters, they could not be overlooked by the Iriſh Legiſlature. On the 19th of April, a meſſage from the Lord Lieutenant informed the Houſe of Commons, that meetings were held by perſons calling themſelves *United Irishmen*, for the purpoſe of ſubverting the Conſtitution and Government of the country; that two of their committees had been

arreſted in the town of Belfaſt, and their papers ſeized; and that the matter contained in theſe papers was of ſo much importance as to claim the attention of the Houſe; for which reaſon he had directed them to be laid before it. A ſecret Committee was appointed to enquire into the cauſes and conſequences of ſuch meetings, and to inveſtigate the papers which had been ſeized.

On the 10th of May the report of this Committee was brought in, ſtating, that the papers correſponded with the riſe and progreſs of the ſociety called *United Irishmen*; that the object of that ſociety was evidently the ſubverſion of the Government, and the erection of a Republic on its ruins. It further ſtated, that from the minutes of ſome ſocieties which had been ſeized, it appeared that a ſecret army, conſiſting of vaſt numbers, was organized, regularly officered, and as regularly armed as circumſtances would allow; that magazines were forming; that deficiencies of regular arms were made up by pikes, and that ſubſcriptions for procuring arms were aſſiduouſly promoted. From the different ſocieties throughout the kingdom, delegates were appointed; and from theſe again committeemen, to form executive, financial, and military departments. The number of men enliſted under this revolutionary ſyſtem, in the north, appeared to be one hundred and twenty-four thouſand, armed with muſquets and bayonets, ſwords, piſtols, and pikes, beſides a large magazine of ammunition, and ſome pieces of artillery. It appeared from the report, that this force was ready to be called out at one day's notice, and that ſome of the original papers contained theſe words:—"No time is "to be loſt, for our friends are hourly expected."

In conſequence of this report, the Parliament inveſted the Lord Lieutenant with ſuch powers as were thought

thought neceſſary for preſerving the peace of the country. The northern counties were put under martial law. At the prorogation of the Parliament, on the 10th of Auguſt, his Excellency informed them that he had been enabled to bring to light, and diſconcert the conſpiracy. But it afterwards appeared, that, in giving them this information, he was rather premature. A proclamation had indeed been publiſhed as early as the 17th of May, ſetting forth the diſtracted ſtate of the country. It ſtates, that, under various pretences, ſeditious aſſemblages of people were convened,—that the houſes of the peaceable inhabitants were plundered by large bodies of armed men,—that the yeomanry forces had been attacked, with a view to diſarm them,—and that the growing timber had been cut down, with a view to fabricate pikes and other offenſive weapons. It ſtated, that as the exertions of the civil power had been found ineffectual to ſuppreſs theſe outrages, it was neceſſary to employ the military force; and that orders had accordingly been given to the Officers commanding his Majeſty's forces, to oppoſe, with all their power, ſuch as ſhould obſtruct them in the exerciſe of their duty. And it concludes, with promiſing pardon to all who had joined the treaſonable ſocieties, upon their returning to their allegiance; unleſs ſuch as had been guilty of murder, burglary, burning of houſes, or other acts of plunder and devaſtation.

But this proclamation, and even the conſequent exertions of the military, did not prevent the United Men from proceeding in their deſigns. Soon after its publication, an active effort was made, to produce a general inſurrection in Ulſter, and a ſlight movement did actually take place. But the main deſign was fruſtrated, partly by the activity of General Lake, and partly by

the unwillingneſs of the Colonels of the United Iriſhmen to act, at that period, without foreign aid. Of ſuch aid they had always very liberal promiſes. In the month of July they received diſpatches from their Miniſters at Paris, announcing that the armament then fitting out in the Texel was deſtined for Ireland, and that a ſimilar armament was to proceed from France about the ſame time. This was announced in their provincial meetings, and their expectations were conſiderably raiſed. But Admiral Duncan's victory diſappointed their hopes with regard to the Dutch fleet, and probably with regard to the other alſo, if the ſailing of the French fleet was really intended. After the rupture of the negotiation at Liſle, the French Government again held out to them the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of ſupport; and that they would never abandon Ireland, till its ſeparation from Great Britain ſhould be accompliſhed.

But notwithſtanding the apparent harmony between the two Directories (for the Iriſh had their Directory as well as the French), conſiderable jealouſies began to ſubſiſt between them. The Iriſh wiſhed only for a French army, of from five to ten thouſand men, with forty thouſand ſtand of arms. But the French refuſed to ſend leſs than an army of fifty thouſand. From whence ſome of their friends in Ireland concluded, that the real object of the Gallic Directory was not to aſſiſt, but to ſubdue them. And every perſon who knew how they behaved to other nations, for whom they profeſſed a ſimilar friendſhip, will readily believe that our Iriſh neighbours were not miſtaken in that conjecture; unleſs the French were conſcious that they could ſend them no effectual aſſiſtance, and meant only to amuſe them with large promiſes, which they never intended to fulfil. At any rate, they ſuffered the

the year 1797 to paſs over without a ſingle effort to aſſiſt their Iriſh brethren. And thus, happily both for Britain and Ireland, the moſt favourable moment was ſuffered to eſcape; ſo that, when they came afterwards to make an attempt, Britain was better prepared to reſiſt it.

In the mean time the military in Ireland had very ſevere duty, in watching the motions of the conſpirators, and endeavouring to protect the peaceable inhabitants of the country. In executing this ſervice, they were accuſed of many acts of rigour and cruelty. Particularly, it was ſaid that ſeveral perſons were flogged, and otherways tortured, to extort confeſſions from them; and it is probable enough that, in ſome caſes, ſuch things might take place as no man of juſtice or humanity will juſtify. But ſundry things may be ſaid in alleviation of their criminality. When the country was proclaimed to be under martial law, it was in vain to expect that the ordinary forms of juſtice ſhould be obſerved; and if they were not, the blame muſt be upon thoſe whoſe ſeditious and treaſonable conduct rendered that meaſure neceſſary. It is not eaſy to reſtrain ſoldiers from committing acts of violence, when thoſe whom they conſider as enemies are in their power; and if they ſometimes did things at which humanity revolts, it ought to be conſidered that their provocations were great and many. Unhappy Ireland was, at this period, the theatre of aſſaſſination and outrage. The houſes of the peaceable inhabitants were frequently aſſailed in the night, by bands of United Iriſhmen; and ſome perſons of reſpectability were murdered in the moſt barbarous manner, without having given any provocation, and, in ſome inſtances, without making any attempt to defend themſelves. Add to all this, that the

the minds of the ſoldiery were embittered, by attempts made to corrupt and draw them aſide from their allegiance. Nor were theſe attempts altogether without ſucceſs. As early as the 16th of May, four privates of the Monaghan militia were ſhot, in purſuance of the ſentence of a court-martial, for having been ſeduced from their allegiance; having joined the United Iriſhmen, and received commiſſions to act as officers in a rebel corps. At any rate, no perſon of ordinary candour will impute to Government ſuch acts of undue ſeverity as might be exerciſed by the ſoldiery, when heated by ſuch provocation.

It was about this time that the minority in the Iriſh Parliament, thinking to appeaſe the male-contents, by conceſſions, introduced a motion for parliamentary reform. It was rejected by a great majority, as might have been expected. After which that party who were called the Whigs in Ireland, ſeceded in a body, and took no part in parliamentary diſcuſſions afterwards.

By the way, it may not be improper to obſerve, that all who ſet themſelves in oppoſition to government, both in Britain and Ireland for many years back, have affected to call themſelves Whigs, in expectation of gaining the people to their ſide by that means; as they know that the name is ſtill popular in both countries: though their principles are as far different from thoſe of the original Whigs as the eaſt is different from the weſt. It is well known that the Whigs at the period of our happy Revolution, oppoſed themſelves to the government of the Stuart family, becauſe that family manifeſtly aimed at abſolute power, and would govern the nations without parliaments; whereas our modern Whigs oppoſe every meaſure of government, though ſanctioned by

by the greateſt majority in both Houſes of Parliament. On the other hand, the Tories of that period were men who pleaded for the divine right of kings, and the doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance; whereas they who are now branded with the name of Tories, hold all ſuch doctrines in abhorrence; and only plead for a quiet ſubjection to thoſe laws, which are eſtabliſhed by the joint authority of King, Lords, and Commons. The parliamentary conſtitution which we now have, is that which our Whig anceſtors gave us, and they were happy to get it ſecured. But the Whigs of the preſent day will needs have that conſtitution changed, and a parliament of a new form introduced. Hence it clearly appears, that the friends of government are the true Whigs, if the diſtinction between Whigs and Tories muſt ſtill be kept up. And if the oppoſition party are unwilling to be called Tories, let them chooſe themſelves another name.

In the mean time, if our modern Whigs, either in Britain or Ireland, (to gratify them once more with the name,) thought that the United Iriſhmen, or thoſe who took part with them in Britain, would have been ſatisfied with ſuch reform in parliament, as they propoſed, it was an inconteſtible proof that thoſe Whigs were not United Iriſhmen, nor connected with that infamous ſociety, otherwiſe they muſt have known that their object was to make a total ſeparation between Britain and Ireland, and erect Ireland into an independent republic, upon the model of that of France.

The Britiſh parliament met again on the 2d of November this year. But the political debates were much curtailed, by the continuance of that receſſion, which Mr Fox and the other leaders of the oppoſition party had made towards the concluſion of the preceding ſeſſion.

ſion. They argued, that the violent ſtate of party politics rendered the meaſure neceſſary on their part. If they oppoſed the meaſures of government, they were conſidered as taking part with the enemies of their country; and if they concurred in thoſe meaſures, they took upon themſelves a part of the reſponſibility. They could not aid government with their counſels, and they would not embarraſs it by a fruitleſs oppoſition.

His Majeſty began his ſpeech by expreſſing his concern at the failure of his endeavours for the reſtoration of peace. He expreſſed his perſuaſion, that the papers to be laid before them would convince every one, that it was ſolely owing to the ambition of the enemy, and to their inveterate enmity againſt theſe kingdoms. He profeſſed his firm reliance, under Providence, on the wiſdom of parliament, and the courage of a free people in the neceſſary continuance of the ſtruggle. He adverted to the increaſe of our trade, and the hopeful ſtate of the revenue. He mentioned the diſplays of public ſpirit among the people, and of courage among the troops; and took particular notice of the late brilliant victory of Lord Duncan, as preſages of future ſucceſs.

When the Addreſs was moved, the remains of Oppoſition in both Houſes took the opportunity of inveighing againſt Miniſtry, ſtill imputing to them the failure of the Negotiation. They inſiſted on the impropriety of employing Lord Malmeſbury the ſecond time, after his failure in the firſt; and imputed the inſolence of the demands of the French to that circumſtance. They affirmed, that it were better to give up all our conqueſts than continue the war another year; and averred that nothing would procure us peace but a change of miniſters.

On the other ſide it was granted, that if the giving up

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our conqueſts, or the change of Miniſters was to procure us an honourable and laſting peace, perhaps the purchaſe might not be too dear; but it was argued, that the conduct of the Directory made it evident, that they did not wiſh for peace upon any terms, ſhort of the deſtruction of our government and conſtitution. We were called upon to give up our conqueſts, not as the price of peace, but as the price of being allowed to treat. And if we had complied with that demand, we ſhould then, perhaps, have found it neceſſary to treat for our navy itſelf. The Addreſs was carried, in both Houſes, without a diviſion.

The thanks of both Houſes were voted to Lord Duncan, his officers and men, for their brilliant victory over the Dutch fleet. And the firſt day that the gallant Admiral took his ſeat in the Houſe of Peers, the thanks of that Houſe were delivered to him by the Lord Chancellor.

On the 8th of November, when the papers relative to the negotiation at Liſle were taken into conſideration, Lord Grenville, after recapitulating the various ſteps taken by the Directory, which ſhewed their averſion to peace; and contraſting theſe with the condeſcending and conciliatory ſpirit evinced by his Majeſty thro' the whole courſe of the buſineſs, moved an Addreſs to his Majeſty, aſſuring him, "that by a review of thoſe papers, they were convinced of the inſidious deſigns of "the enemy, who appeared to aim at the deſtruction "of the laws, liberties, and conſtitution of this country; but, truſting to divine Providence, by which "we had hitherto been protected, they hoped we "ſhould be enabled to defeat their deſigns. They were "aware that the exertions would require great energy; "but they pledged themſelves, that they would ſup-

" port his Majeſty's throne, and ſtand or fall with our " religion, and the laws and liberties of our happy con- " ſtitution." This Addreſs was agreed to without a diſſenting voice.

On the 10th of the month, this Addreſs was read in the Houſe of Commons, together with the papers upon which it was founded; and a motion was made by Mr Dundas, " that this Houſe do concur with their Lord- " ſhips in that Addreſs." Sir John Sinclair objected to certain words in the Addreſs, which, he ſaid, had for their object to promote a continual war between this country and France. He therefore propoſed an amendment, the ſubſtance of which was, to expreſs a hope, that both nations would ſee the neceſſity of renewing the negotiation. After ſundry ſpeeches, in which ſome blamed Miniſters, as having broke off the negotiation, and others found fault with them for carrying it too far, while they defended themſelves with much ability from both charges, Sir John withdrew his amendment, and the Addreſs paſſed *nem. con.*

From the 10th of November, no public buſineſs of importance was introduced in either Houſe, except what related to the Budget. This year the Miniſter adopted a ſcheme, which none of his predeceſſors had ever ventured to propoſe, ſince the adoption of the Funding Syſtem. It was to raiſe a great part of the ſupplies within the year. The method of doing this was a tax upon Income. The general outlines of the plan were, that they whoſe income was under £.60 a year ſhould be exempted; that thoſe who had more than £.60 and leſs than £.200, ſhould be entitled to certain proportional allowances; but that all who poſſeſſed £. 200 a year, or above, ſhould be aſſeſſed at a ſum not exceeding one-tenth part of their income. After

ter long diſcuſſion, and various explications and modifications, the plan was adopted; and this income tax continued to be levied during the continuance of the war. No doubt, it fell heavy on ſome claſſes of men: And there were others whoſe income could not eaſily be aſcertained; but, upon the whole, it was, perhaps, the moſt equitable method that could have been fallen upon, for raiſing ſuch a ſum of money.

When the bill came to a ſecond reading, on the 14th of December, Mr Fox, and the other Members of the oppoſition party, attended in their places; and much did they ſay againſt it. Nor did they ſatisfy themſelves with this. They loudly cenſured the whole conduct of Miniſtry. They ſaid it was not on account of the ambition of France, that the war was either commenced or continued: It was to keep nine worthleſs Miniſters in their places. It was ſaid, that Miniſters were never ſincere in their wiſhes for peace, that the people would never enjoy peace under their adminiſtration; but that his Majeſty would not ſee nine men, in his road from Windſor to London, who ſhould not be able to conclude peace with France in a fortnight. As to the meaſure propoſed, it was ſaid, it would violate the laws, by indirectly taxing the money in the funds; it would ruin the trading part of the nation, by obliging them to diſcloſe their circumſtances; it would deſtroy the claſs of landed gentlemen. In a word, it would make more Jacobins than ever exiſted. But it was added, Miniſters wiſhed to introduce the ſame military law, and to ſee the ſame horrible ſcenes exhibited here as in Ireland.

Inſtead of repeating what was ſaid in reply, moſt of which tended to vindicate Miniſtry, and to throw back deſerved cenſure upon their opponents, it may be ſuf-

ficient to obſerve, that when the meaſure was carried into execution, none of the evils that were predicted followed upon it. Some trading people felt it bear a little hard upon them; but the claſs of landed gentlemen was not deſtroyed, the number of Jacobins was not increaſed: nor did the generality of them, whoſe money was in the funds, complain of injuſtice in their caſe. And if Miniſters really wiſhed the ſcenes of Ireland to be re-acted in Britain, happily for the country, they were grievouſly diſappointed. When the Houſe divided, there were for the bill 175, and againſt it 50.

On the 15th of the month, Mr Tierney made a motion for an addreſs to his Majeſty, expreſſing the concern of the Houſe, that his Majeſty had been induced to make a diviſion of the offices in the State department, ſo that a new office of a third Secretary had been created, at a great expence to the nation. It was anſwered, that though, for ſome time after the commencement of the war, Mr Dundas had done the duties that were now diſcharged by himſelf and the Duke of Portland; yet it was found impracticable to continue to do ſo; as the military department completely occupied the time and attention of any ſingle perſon. And that the additional expence was not ſo great as had been ſtated. The Motion was negatived without a diviſion.

On the 22d of the month, Lord Moira again called the attention of the Houſe of Peers to the affairs of Ireland. He repreſented, in ſtrong colours, the diſtreſſed ſituation of that country, imputing it chiefly to that coercive ſyſtem which had been adopted by the Government there. But, as he did not make any ſpecific motion on the ſubject, it was thought ſufficient to reply, that any interference of that Houſe with the affairs of Ireland, would be an infringement upon the Conſtitution

tion of that kingdom; that, during the whole of his Majeſty's reign, one ſyſtem of conceſſion and indulgence had been purſued with regard to Ireland, and that no ſteps were now taken which were not abſolutely neceſſary to preſerve the country from a dangerous and extenſive conſpiracy, the aim of which was to render that country a province of France.

Towards the concluſion of this year, on the 17th of November, happened the death of Frederick William II. King of Pruſſia. But this event had leſs influence upon the politics of Europe than might have been expected, as the ſame line of conduct which he marked out, has always been followed by his ſon, who ſucceeded him, under the name of Frederick William III. The conduct of the deceaſed Monarch affords but few materials to the man who would draw his character. During the life of his uncle, the great Frederick, he made no figure in the political world, as that Monarch never truſted the management of his affairs in any hands but his own. From the time of his acceſſion to the Throne, his conduct ſeems to have been influenced but by one paſſion. To aggrandize himſelf, to extend his dominions, and increaſe his influence in the Germanic body, ſeems to have been his principal aim. The ſhare he took in the partition of Poland, his early deſertion of the coalition againſt the Revoluioniſts of France, and his ſecret and myſterious connections with that Republic, muſt leave an impreſſion upon every mind, more favourable to his ſkill in political intrigue, than either to his juſtice or good faith.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIII.

Parliamentary proceedings from the beginning of 1798 *till the close of the Session.—Affairs of Ireland.—Society of United Irishmen, Orange-men, Defenders.—Military system of the conspirators.—Their intercourse with France.—Plan of a general insurrection.—Discovered, and defeated.—Commencement of the Rebellion.—Battle of Naas, of Kilcullen, of Tallagh-hill, of Carlow, and of Enniscorthy.—Wexford seized by the Rebels.—Battle of Ross, of Gorey, of Arklow, of Vinegar-hill, and of Clonakilty.—Wexford retaken.—Lord Cornwallis made Lieutenant.—Battle of Shark-hill, of Kilconnel-hill, and of Hacketstown.—Massacres at Scollobogue.—Insurrection in the North.—Battle of Antrim, of Bullynahinch, and of Ardee.—Humbert's invasion, progress, and defeat.—Napper Tandy's landing.—Defeat of the French squadron by Sir John Borlase Warren.—Trial and death of Theobald Wolfe Tone.—Suppression of the Rebellion.—Reflections.*

ONE of the first things that engaged the attention of Parliament, after the commencement of the year 1798, was the invasion which had been so long threatened by the enemy. On the 11th of January, a message was sent from his Majesty to both Houses of Parliament, soliciting their attention to that important subject. It was some time, however, before a proper plan of defence could be adjusted. But, on the 8th of February,

February, Mr Dundas moved for the introduction of a bill, to enable his Majeſty to call out a certain proportion of the ſupplementary militia, and incorporate them in companies of the regular militia. The bill was paſſed with very little debate.

On the 27th of March, the ſame Gentleman moved for leave to bring in a bill to enable his Majeſty to take meaſures for the more effectual ſecurity and defence of theſe realms, and to indemnify perſons who might ſuffer injury in their property, by the operation of ſuch meaſures. The ſubſtance of the bill was, to enable his Majeſty to diſcover who were the perſons prepared to appear in arms for the country's defence, and who would be fit to act as pioneers, or in other laborious ſervices. It was alſo to provide for the indemnification of thoſe whoſe property ſhould be deſtroyed by a marching army, or fall into the enemy's hands, or be taken for the ſervice of the country; and that, if it ſhould be neceſſary, to employ perſons as pioneers, in removing ſtock, or in the carriage of military ſtores, proper compenſation ſhould be made. None of the oppoſition members ſet themſelves directly againſt this meaſure. Some of them found fault, that it was not adopted ſooner. Some ſaid it would do no good, while the preſent ſyſtem was purſued in Ireland. In the progreſs of the bill, through its ſeveral ſtages, ſundry clauſes were added, but it paſſed both Houſes without a diſſentient voice.

Another precaution adopted in the courſe of the Seſſion, was the revival of the alien bill; and, as there were ſufficient proofs of a correſpondence between the United Iriſhmen and certain perſons in this country, the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act was alſo revived, by a bill, which was firſt paſſed by the Houſe of Lords, and

and then by the Commons, empowering his Majeſty to ſecure and detain ſuch perſons as he may ſuſpect to be conſpiring againſt his perſon and Government. There was leſs oppoſition made to both theſe bills at this time than there was on a former occaſion; and what was now ſaid, both for and againſt them, was ſo much the ſame with what had been ſaid before, that it would ſerve little purpoſe to repeat it.

Another financial meaſure, adopted during this Seſſion of Parliament, different from all thoſe of former times, was the bill for the perpetuation and redemption of the land tax. On the 2d of April Mr Pitt ſtated, in the Houſe of Commons, the outlines of his plan, and concluded with moving a ſtring of fifteen reſolutions, which formed the baſis of the bill intended to be brought in. Theſe are too long to be here inſerted. And as the act has now been ſo long in operation, all perſons concerned in it have an opportunity of being acquainted with it. The ſubſtance of the plan is, That the land tax already appointed to be levied for the year 1798, ſhall continue to be levied yearly for ever; but that it ſhall be lawful for commiſſioners appointed for that purpoſe, to agree with all perſons, paying land tax, for the redemption of it; that the conſideration to be given for ſuch redemption ſhall be ſo much capital ſtock, in the three per cent annuities, as will yield an annuity exceeding the amount of the land tax to be redeemed, by one-fifth part thereof. This to be paid, in the ſpace of five years, by four inſtalments in each year; but if the owners of land ſhall neglect to redeem their land tax within the five years, the commiſſioners ſhall have power to diſpoſe of it to any perſon that offers; and that all proprietors of lands ſhall have power to ſell as much of their reſpective eſtates, as may enable them

them to redeem their land tax. By this plan it was computed that government would make a ſaving of £.400,000 a year, while the holder of the land would alſo be a conſiderable gainer.

For further providing for the defence of the country, a Bill was brought in, pretty early in the Seſſion, and received the Royal aſſent on the 12th of January, for allowing ſuch of the Supplementary Militia as choſe it, to enliſt in the ſtanding regiments. The number to be ſo enliſted was reſtricted to 10,000, and the duration of their ſervice to ſix months after the concluſion of the war.

Upon a Meſſage being ſent to the Houſe of Commons by his Majeſty, intimating his deſire to grant £.2000 a year to each of the two gallant Admirals, who had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their brilliant victories, during the laſt campaign, Lord St Vincent and Lord Duncan, and to the two ſucceeding heirs male to each of the titles, as a mark of his royal approbation; the Houſe unanimouſly agreed in a reſolution enabling his Majeſty to do ſo. A ſimilar meſſage was ſent to the Lords, and an Act of Parliament paſſed accordingly.

On the 22d of March, the Duke of Bedford, according to previous intimation, and having got the Lords ſummoned for the purpoſe, introduced a Motion in the Houſe of Peers, for an Addreſs to his Majeſty to remove from his Councils his preſent Miniſters. The reaſonings on this Motion were ſo much the ſame with what had been uſed before on ſimilar occaſions, that it would be ſuperfluous to recite them. Only it may be proper to mention the extraordinary concluſion of his Grace's ſpeech. Having avowed perpetual enmity againſt the Miniſtry, he expreſſed himſelf in theſe words, "If ever I join them through fear, may I be abhorred

" by my countrymen; may I be deteſted by the world; " and may God Almighty ſhower down his curſes upon " me for my apoſtacy!" His Motion was negatived by 113 againſt 13. And immediately after the diviſion, the Houſe, without any oppoſition, concurred in a Reſolution, propoſed by Lord Romney, declaring their adherence to the principles which had governed the Council, and in which the Parliament had uniformly concurred, for the ſecurity of theſe kingdoms againſt foreign attack, and for the maintenance of our religion, laws, and conſtitution.

Some litigation was occaſioned by a Bill, which was introduced by the Attorney General, on the 13th of June, to prevent the miſchiefs ariſing from the printing and publiſhing of Newſpapers, and papers of a like nature, by perſons not known; and for regulating the printing and publiſhing of ſuch papers. The ſubſtance of the Bill was to oblige the proprietors and publiſhers of ſuch papers to inſert their names. This was reprobated by the Oppoſition, as an infringement of the liberty of the preſs. In anſwer to this it was ſaid, that the object of the Bill was not to reſtrain any man from publiſhing what he thought proper, but only to make him reſponſible for what he ſhould ſo publiſh. And therefore, inſtead of infringing the liberty of the preſs, it would tend to eſtabliſh it. The Bill was carried thro' both Houſes, by a great majority, and received the Royal aſſent on the 28th of the month. The principal occaſion of it was an atrocious libel, which had been publiſhed in the Courier, reſpecting the treatment of French priſoners.

As it was during this Seſſion of Parliament that the Rebellion broke out in Ireland, there were many alluſions made to the ſtate of that country, in the ſpeeches of

of members on other ſubjects, before any direct attempt was made to introduce a formal diſcuſſion of Iriſh affairs. In one of theſe Lord Moira had thrown down his gauntlet, reſpecting proofs which he had to exhibit, of ſeverities uſed by the military on the people of Ireland, which was taken up by the Marquis of Downſhire. And on the 28th of March, there was a pretty full attendance in the Houſe of Peers, to hear the explication between them. Lord Moira ſaid, he had affidavits of an hundred perſons, to prove, that terror, and even tortures, ſuch as piqueting and half-hanging, had been uſed to extort confeſſions, and houſes had been burned moſt wantonly, and in prodigious numbers. Lord Downſhire replied, that it would have given him ſatisfaction not to have this affair agitated in a Britiſh Houſe of Peers, as they had no right to diſcuſs it, and the diſcuſſion led to danger. He admitted that exceſſes might have been committed by the ſoldiers, but they had been exaggerated; nor were they committed in conſequence of their orders. He ſaid Lord Moira might remember how often the army which himſelf commanded in America was abuſed by oppoſition newſpapers, for outrages and cruelty, and how difficult he had found it to reſtrain ſoldiers from ſuch exceſſes. He mentioned an inſtance of an outrage committed in a printing-office at Belfaſt, for which ten men were ſhot at the head of the regiment. Such exceſſes, therefore, could with no juſtice be imputed to the Executive Government, who forbad and puniſhed them. With reſpect to coercive meaſures, he ſaid he ſaw the neceſſity of them, and was not aſhamed to have been one of the firſt to adviſe them; as he had ſaid then, and ſaid now, that the emancipation of the Catholics, and Parliamentary Reform were only held forth by the United Iriſhmen as a

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ſtalking horſe, to deceive the vulgar and the ignorant; while their real aim was a total ſeparation of Ireland from Britain, and the erection of it into a republic, on the model of that of France.

On the 15th of June, the Duke of Leinſter moved an Addreſs to his Majeſty, "praying that he would order "to be laid before the Houſe, a full ſtatement of the "facts and circumſtances which had led to the diſaſ-"trous affairs of Ireland, and of the meaſures that had "been purſued for averting ſuch momentous evils; in "hopes that the Houſe would be enabled to aſſiſt his "Majeſty, according to their conſtitutional duty, with "ſome well adapted remedy." But, as the majority of the Houſe did not think that the conſtitutional duty of the Britiſh Houſe of Peers allowed them to diſcuſs the affairs of Ireland, the motion was negatived by 70 againſt 19.

Attempts were alſo made to introduce the ſame ſubject in the Britiſh Houſe of Commons. On the 14th of June, Mr Sheridan moved for a Committee to inquire into the ſtate of Ireland. But the Motion was rejected, by 149 againſt 53. And on the following day Lord G. Cavendiſh introduced a ſtring of reſolutions, expreſſing the readineſs of the Houſe to aſſiſt his Majeſty to ſubdue rebellion, and to maintain the connection between Britain and Ireland; but intimating it as their opinion, that Ireland ſhould not be governed as a conquered kingdom; recommending meaſures of conceſſion; but ſignifying that Miniſters, who had always oppoſed ſuch meaſures, could not be the proper channels for conveying his Majeſty's beneficent intentions to their fellow-ſubjects. After a long debate, the Houſe divided, and there were for the Reſolutions 66, againſt them 212—Majority 146. Immediately Mr Fox brought forward

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a propoſition of the following purport: "That this "Houſe, underſtanding that the Syſtem of Coertion had "been enforced in Ireland, with a rigour ſhocking to "humanity, is of opinion, that an immediate ſtop ſhould "be put to practices ſo diſgraceful to the Britiſh name; "and that all hopes of reſtoring tranquillity to Ireland, "muſt ariſe from a change of Meaſures, and a change of "Miniſters." This motion alſo was negatived by 204, againſt 52.

On the 18th of the ſame month, a meſſage from his Majeſty informed the Houſe of Peers, that the officers and privates of different regiments of the militia of this kingdom had made a voluntary tender of their ſervices, for ſuppreſſing the rebellion in Ireland. A bill was produced by Lord Grenville, to meet the object of the meſſage, and paſſed through the uſual forms in the Houſe with all convenient ſpeed.

On the 19th the ſame ſubject was introduced to the Houſe of Commons by a ſimilar meſſage from his Majeſty. Mr Dundas moved for an addreſs, thanking his Majeſty for the meſſage. This gave occaſion to a long debate, in which the meaſure of ſending over the militia to Ireland was reprobated by the minority, as abandoning the principle upon which the militia-bill was originally eſtabliſhed,—as ſhaking the foundations of the Conſtitution,—as a breach of the public faith,—and as an additional attempt to force upon Ireland a ſyſtem of government which nine-tenths of the people abhorred. And they propoſed an amendment, in which, after commending the zeal of thoſe who had offered their ſervices, the Houſe was to aſſure his Majeſty, that the queſtion ſuggeſted by the meſſage was of ſuch importance, that the Houſe was not prepared to give an opinion upon it. As few arguments were uſed in ſupport

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of theſe ſtrong aſſertions, few were neceſſary to be uſed in reply. It was ſaid that more troops muſt be ſent to Ireland, to ſuppreſs an open rebellion,—that the militia could beſt be ſpared, as they could be moſt eaſily recruited, and as they now amounted to one hundred thouſand. That their being engaged to ſerve in any part of Britain, and not being to be ſent out of Britain, without their conſent, did not preclude their being employed elſewhere, when they voluntarily offered themſelves; and that the queſtion came preciſely to this, Whether the Houſe would take upon themſelves the reſponſibility of letting the rebellion go forward, when they had an opportunity of cruſhing it? The queſtion being put on the amendment, it was rejected by a majority of 71; 47 being for it, and 118 againſt it. The original motion was then put, and carried. The bill which had been paſſed in the other Houſe, to enable his Majeſty to ſend twelve thouſand of the militia to Ireland, afterwards paſſed through the uſual forms in the Commons, and received the Royal Aſſent before the prorogation of Parliament, which took place on the 28th day of June.

Though the Britiſh Parliament, with great propriety, declined taking any cognizance of the affairs of Ireland, theſe affairs muſt not be overlooked by the hiſtorian. But, in order to have a proper view of them, it will be neceſſary to take a retroſpect view of the ſituation of that country for ſome time before.

The ſociety of *United Iriſhmen* was originally formed in the year 1791. Their oſtenſible object was to obtain a Reform in Parliament, and what they choſe to call Catholic emancipation; that is, the admiſſion of Roman Catholics to a participation of all the rights and privileges enjoyed by the Proteſtant ſubjects, or rather,

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by thoſe of the eſtabliſhed religion in Ireland. Their organization was gradual; nor was it brought to perfection till the French Conſtitution of the third year had ſet them a pattern. A code of laws, it is ſaid, was drawn up for its regulation by Mr Theobald Wolfe Tone. This man was the ſon of a tradeſman in Dublin, had been educated in Trinity College, and brought up to the Bar. And the conſtitution of this ſociety evinced that he wanted not ſome degree of political knowledge. Its firſt article ſtated, That "the ſociety "was conſtituted for the purpoſe of forwarding a bro- "therhood of affection, a community of rights, and an "union of power, among Iriſhmen of every religious "perſuaſion; and thereby to obtain a complete reform "in the Legiſlature, founded on the principles of civil, "political, and religious liberty."

They had their primary ſocieties or diviſions, which conſiſted at firſt of thirty-ſix members; but, for the more ſecrecy, theſe were afterwards reduced to twelve. Each of theſe elected their own treaſurer and ſecretary, and alſo choſe delegates to what was called the leſſer baronial committee. To this function of delegates, by a ſubſequent regulation, the ſecretary ſucceeded *ex officio*. The lower baronial committee conſiſted of five ſecretaries, and had the ſuperintendance of the five ſocieties whom they repreſented. From each of theſe committees a member was choſen to an upper baronial committee, which ſuperintended all the lower committees within the diſtrict. One or more delegates from each of theſe upper baronial committees formed a county committee, and two or three from each county committee made up the provincial committee. An executive directory for the whole kingdom was choſen by the four provincial committees. It conſiſted of five perſons,

ſons, known only to the ſecretaries of the provincial committees, who were ſcrutineers of the ballot. This directory exerciſed an authority almoſt unlimited, over the whole body of the Union; and the members every where gave implicit obedience to a power unknown and inviſible. An oath was impoſed upon every one at his admiſſion into the ſociety, in which he bound himſelf to perſevere in endeavouring to form a brotherhood of affection among Iriſhmen of every religious perſuaſion, and to obtain a full and adequate repreſentation of the people of Ireland. He likewiſe engaged, that neither hopes nor fears, rewards nor puniſhments, ſhould ever prevail with him, directly nor indirectly, to inform or give evidence againſt any member of the aſſociation.

Whether owing to its circumſpection, or its inſignificance, this ſociety did not attract the attention of Government for two or three years after its inſtitution. Neither were the loyal ſubjects of Ireland much alarmed by it. When, by an act of Parliament, in the year 1793, the Roman Catholics were inveſted with all the privileges enjoyed by the Proteſtant ſubjects of Ireland, excepting only the right of ſitting and voting in Parliament, and of being eligible to the great offices of State, about thirty-two in number, this neither gave contentment to the Catholics, nor was it well received by the Proteſtants. Apprehenſive that, to extend the privileges of Catholics, was to put weapons in their hands, to overturn the Conſtitution,—and, alarmed at the increaſing numbers of United Iriſhmen, ſome of the moſt zealous friends of Proteſtant aſcendency formed themſelves into counter aſſociations, and were called Orange-men, in memory of King William, who is ſtill regarded as the deliverer of the Proteſtants in Ireland.

Againſt

Againſt theſe the United Iriſh always bore a mortal enmity.

Another ſet of men appeared in the north of Ireland, under the name of *Defenders*. They alſo were bound together by an oath; and, as the Orange-men had been active in depriving the Papiſts of their arms, the main deſign of the Defenders ſeems to have been, to retaliate upon them; and under pretence of ſearching for arms, to plunder the houſes of Proteſtants, and murder thoſe who had the courage to reſiſt. Though the Defenders and the United Iriſhmen were different ſocieties, they acted upon ſimilar principles, and doubtleſs they acted in concert. At length Government took the alarm; a bill was brought into the Iriſh Parliament, and paſſed againſt holding ſeditious meetings or conventions, and another againſt taking the Defenders oath. Many of theſe deluded people were alſo tried and convicted at the aſſizes, in the reſpective counties.

The firſt direct communication between the French Government and the United Iriſhmen appears to have been by means of one Jackſon, who had been a clergyman of the Church of England. In the year 1794, he went over to Paris, and obtained an introduction to the Jacobin party, then in power. By them he was ſent back to England, to form a connection with the diſaffected, and to facilitate the plan of invaſion. He was chiefly recommended to a Mr Stone, whoſe brother was a printer at Paris. Stone, however, did not favour the idea of an invaſion in Britain; but adviſed him to turn his attention to Ireland, his native country, as better prepared for revolutionary movements. With this view Jackſon went to Ireland, and was there introduced to Theobald Wolfe Tone, and alſo to Hamilton Rowan, who was then in priſon, for ſeditious or treaſonable

practices. With them and others of that fraternity, a plan began to be formed for co-operating with the French in an invasion of Ireland; but Government having intelligence of Jackson's movements, he was apprehended, tried in Dublin, and convicted of high treason. The unhappy man anticipated the sentence of the law; for, when brought into Court, to receive his doom, he fell down at the bar, and expired, having previously taken poison for that purpose. Stone also was tried in England, but acquitted; as he had never encouraged the idea of an invasion of England, nor had any concern in the transactions of Jackson in Ireland.

The disappointment which the Catholics of Ireland met with, by the recall of Earl Fitzwilliam, in the year 1795, occasioned a considerable accession to the society of United Irishmen. About this time what was called the military system commenced, pikes were fabricated, and pains were taken to procure arms. To prevail with the people to join them, the emissaries of treason told them that it was necessary for their own defence, as the Protestants had entered into a covenant to destroy them. About the same time a regular communication was opened between the French Directory and the United Irishmen, by means of Mr Tone, and other Irish refugees in Paris; and in the end of that year a messenger from the society was dispatched to France. In the beginning of the next year, they received from the French Government a proposition, that an army should be sent over, to assist in subverting the monarchy, and separating Ireland from Britain. This the society accepted, but, in order to adjust the terms, Lord Edward Fitzgerald and Mr Arthur O'Connor were sent over to the continent. They had an interview with General Hoche, on the confines of Switzerland; and there, it

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is believed, the plan was laid of that abortive expedition which was made to Bantry Bay, under the command of that General, as has been above related.

After this renewed communication with France, the military ſyſtem went on with rapidity. Its organization was founded on the civil arrangements. The ſecretary to each ſociety of twelve was uſually their petty officer, under the deſignation of ſerjeant or corporal. The ſecretary of a lower baronial committee was a captain, and had ſixty men under his command. The delegate of ten lower baronials to a higher, was uſually the Colonel, whoſe battalion conſiſted of ſix hundred. Staff officers were appointed by the directory, from a leet of three perſons, tranſmitted to them by the Colonels of each county. The Commander in Chief and ſuperior officers ſeem to have been nominated by the directory alone.

In the month of March 1796, the inſurrection-act was paſſed, by which the Magiſtrates of any county or diſtrict were empowered to proclaim it out of the King's peace, and conſequently ſubject to military law; but it was not acted upon till the month of November. This act, no doubt, gave much offence to all the diſcontented in Ireland, and in Britain too. But it is eaſy to ſee that ſtrong and vigorous meaſures were now become abſolutely neceſſary; and if ſuch had not been adopted, Ireland muſt have been loſt to Britain, and loſt to itſelf.

The united Iriſh were not diſcouraged by the failure of the Bantry-Bay expedition. Their alliance with France was more firmly cemented. One Edward John Lewins, a Dublin attorney, went over from Ireland to Hamburgh, where he obtained letters from the French Miniſter to General Hoche, whom he met at Franck-

fort. From thence he went to Paris, where he remained as a credited Miniſter from "the Iriſh Republic." In the Summer of 1797, the French Directory required another Miniſter to be ſent, with more ample inſtructions, to arrange the plan of invaſion; and Dr M'Niven, who had acted as ſecretary to the Iriſh executive, was appointed to that ſervice. He recommended Oyſterhaven as the place of debarkation, rather than Bantry Bay, becauſe, by that means the reduction of the city of Cork would be facilitated. He alſo required an additional ſupply of arms, as large ſeizures of theſe had been made by Government; and he engaged, that for the expence of this, as well as the preceding expedition, the Iriſh Republic ſhould be reſponſible. According to a memorial preſented by this ambaſſador to the French Government, there were at this time one hundred and fifty thouſand united Iriſhmen enrolled and organized in the province of Ulſter alone.

All this while the Iriſh Government, though aware of a treaſonable conſpiracy in the country, were, in a great meaſure, ignorant of its nature and extent; but information having been received, that on the 14th of April 1797, a ſeditious meeting of ſome kind was to be held in the houſe of one Alexander in Belfaſt, Colonel Barber, with a detachment of the army, went thither on that day, and found two committees ſitting. Their papers were ſeized, and among them was a printed declaration, and the Conſtitution of the United Iriſhmen. There were alſo various reports of committees, and other important documents, which left no doubt of the nature and extent of the conſpiracy. Other papers of a ſimilar nature were diſcovered by the activity of the Magiſtrates in other parts of the kingdom. All theſe were ſubmitted, by both Houſes of Parliament, to ſecret

cret Committees; and each Committee gave in a report, the ſubſtance of which will be found in a preceding chapter.

Though the French Government had been liberal in their promiſes to their confederates in Ireland, they were tardy in their performance. Thus the winter of 1797 was ſuffered to paſs, without one effort to aſſiſt them, and the moſt favourable opportunity was loſt. The Iriſh Government was now completely on its guard, and many who had joined the United Iriſhmen, while ignorant of their true object, now that their treaſonable deſigns were manifeſt, deſerted their cauſe. Obſerving that their party was viſibly on the decline, that their opponents were daily gathering ſtrength, and that their allies were doing nothing for their aſſiſtance, the faction, in the beginning of 1798, reſolved upon making a deſperate effort by themſelves. In the month of February a military committee was appointed by their executive council, detailed inſtructions were iſſued to the Adjutant-Generals, and thanks were given to thoſe Colonels who had been active in embodying and organizing the people. A diſpatch was prepared by the Iriſh Directory, to be ſent to France, preſſing in the moſt urgent manner for the promiſed ſuccours, but it was found impoſſible to convey it thither. In the months of February and March, many places in the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter were in the actual poſſeſſion of the United Iriſh, and others were ſecretly under their controul. Nocturnal depredations and outrages, throughout the kingdom, were innumerable. In one inſtance, an attack was made in open day. The town of Cahir, in the county of Tipperary, was inveſted by a party of eight hundred men, chiefly cavalry. They took poſſeſſion of the place, retained it till they had made

made a regular ſearch for arms, and then evacuated it of their own accord, without moleſtation.

The acts of murder and barbarity committed on theſe occaſions were numerous; ſo that many of the loyal inhabitants, in the ſouthern counties, were obliged to flee for ſafety into the garriſon towns. The government, juſtly alarmed at theſe proceedings, publiſhed a proclamation, on the 30th of March, ſtating that the traiterous conſpiracy, which had for ſome time exiſted in the country, had at length broken out into open acts of violence and rebellion; and therefore orders had been iſſued to the commanders of his Majeſty's forces, to employ them, with the utmoſt vigour and deciſion, for the ſuppreſſion thereof, for the recovery of the arms that had been plundered, and for diſarming rebels and diſaffected perſons.

Previous to the publication of this proclamation, a Motion had been made in the Iriſh Houſe of Peers, by the Earl of Moira, for an "Addreſs to the Lord Lieutenant, to urge his Excellency to purſue ſuch conciliatory meaſures, as might allay the apprehenſions, and extinguiſh the diſcontents unhappily prevalent in the country." His Lordſhip repeated nearly the ſame ſtatement that he had made in the Britiſh Houſe of Peers, inſiſted that the Britiſh Cabinet were chargeable with all the evils in Ireland, which were the effect of the perverſe principles which they had adopted concerning that country. It was anſwered, that the noble Lord's reſidence out of his own country, had rendered him ignorant of its true ſtate; that he miſtook the effect for the cauſe, as the meaſures he complained of were the conſequence; and not the cauſe of diſſatisfaction; that before recourſe was had to ſuch meaſures, they were rendered neceſſary by the groſs enormities committed

mitted by the United Irishmen; and that if the ſoldiers had been guilty of exceſſes, theſe were not authorized by government. It was ſtated, that during the negotiation at Liſle, there were Iriſh agents there, who ſaw the French negotiators more frequently than the Britiſh Ambaſſador did, and diſſuaded them from making peace; and that it was vain to ſpeak of conciliatory meaſures, or even of treating with the conſpirators; as it was evident, that they aimed at nothing leſs than the erection of Ireland into a republic, totally unconnected with Britain; and, that they would not treat, on any other terms, even with Lord Moira himſelf. Indeed it was become ſo manifeſt, that this was their object, and the outrages committed by them were ſo extravagant, that it was not eaſy to account for the motives that could induce any man to propoſe conciliatory meaſures at this juncture.

A newſpaper, devoted to the cauſe of the United Iriſhmen, had long been publiſhed in Belfaſt, called the Northern Star. This paper had been ſuppreſſed by the military, the preſſes broken, and the printing-houſe demoliſhed. To repair this loſs, another paper, of the ſame nature, was eſtabliſhed in Dublin, called the Preſs. The intemperate language uſed in this publication, ſoon rendered it obnoxious to government. The publiſher was impriſoned, and the paper in danger of being ſuppreſſed. In this criſis Mr Arthur O'Connor came boldly forward, and avowed himſelf the Proprietor and Editor of the paper. This man had obtained a ſeat in the Iriſh parliament, through the influence of Lord Longueville, who was his uncle; where he appeared as a zealous ſupporter of Earl Fitzwilliam's adminiſtration. But, upon his uncle's being diſpleaſed with ſome part of his conduct, he reſigned his ſeat. In the

the close of the year 1797, he had been chosen a Member of the Irish Directory, along with Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Mr Oliver Bond, a Dublin merchant, Dr M'Niven, and Counsellor Emmet. O'Connor finding himself suspected, and in danger of a prosecution, came over to England in the beginning of 1798, with an intention to pass from thence into France, in company with John Binns, an active member of the London Corresponding Society, James O'Coigley, an Irish priest, and a person of the name of Allen. Having gone to Margate, in the latter end of February, with an intention to procure a vessel to carry them to France, and some circumstances in their conduct having excited suspicion, they were all apprehended, and made prisoners, first in the Tower, and afterwards in Maidstone goal. At Maidstone they were tried, by a special commission, on the 21st and 22d of May. They were all acquitted but O'Coigley, in whose pocket was found a treasonable paper, purporting to be an address "from "the Secret Committee of England to the Executive "Directory of France." On this account, he was condemned and executed. O'Connor and Binns, after their acquittal, were detained on a new charge of high treason preferred against them.

The time was now come, when government were to obtain a full discovery of the machinations of the United Irishmen. Indeed, considering how complicated the plan of conspiracy was, and how many persons were concerned in it, that it should have been so long kept secret, may afford matter of wonder. It can only be accounted for by this circumstance, that few of themselves were admitted to a full knowledge of the scheme. But as the plot ripened, and the time of its execution approached, it became necessary to entrust a greater number

number of perſons with the ſecret. Among others, there was one Reynolds, who had formerly been a ſilk-manufacturer in Dublin; but had lately removed into the county of Kildare. In February 1797, he became an United Iriſhman; and the following winter was appointed a Colonel in the rebel army, and treaſurer for the county. This Reynolds had ſome pecuniary tranſactions with a Mr Cope, to whom he gave ſome information, by which his curioſity was ſtimulated. Cope prevailed upon him, from time to time, to diſcloſe to him the nature and extent of the conſpiracy; and the information thus received, he communicated to government. Among other things, he gave information, that a meeting of Delegates for the Province of Leinſter was ſummoned for the 12th of March, in the houſe of Oliver Bond. On the day appointed for the meeting, the houſe of Mr Bond was ſurrounded by the officers of juſtice; fourteen of the Delegates were apprehended, with their Secretary M'Can. At the ſame time Dr M'Niven, Counſellor Emmet, and ſome other active Members of the Society were taken up. A warrant had been iſſued for apprehending Lord Edward Fitzgerald, but he eſcaped, and remained undiſcovered in Dublin for upwards of two months. On the 19th of May, however, he was found at the houſe of one Murphy, a dealer in feathers. On the police officers entering the room, he made a deſperate reſiſtance. He wounded two of them dangerouſly, and was himſelf wounded ſo ſeverely, that he only languiſhed a few days before he died.

This was a ſevere blow to the ſchemes of the conſpirators. A new Directory was choſen, but they ſoon experienced the fate of the former. And their own precipitant conduct, in all probability, haſtened their cata-

ſtrophe. It ſeems a part of their plan was, to gain over as many as poſſible of his Majeſty's troops, and particularly of the militia regiments to their ſide; previous to their making an attack, as they intended, upon the royal camp at Loughlinſtown. There was a Captain Armſtrong of the King's County Militia, who had been in the habit of frequenting the ſhop of a bookſeller of the name of Byrne, in the city of Dublin, who was conſidered as one of the literary agents of the rebel party. From ſundry converſations with the Captain, Byrne had conceived an idea, that he either was, or would eaſily be made a convert to their cauſe. Under this perſuaſion, he introduced him to two young barriſters, of the name of Sheares, both United Iriſhmen, and both ſaid to have been elected into the Directory, after the arreſt of the old members on the 12th of March. Armſtrong pretended to enter into the conſpiracy, with the ſole view of making diſcoveries to government.

It was on the 10th of May, that the Captain was introduced to the two Shearefes; and, at that time, the affairs of the conſpirators were thought to be drawing towards a criſis. From him, and other agents, government learned, that a general riſing was intended ſoon to take place. The people were become impatient, on account of the criminal proſecutions. And it was thought neceſſary to make a ſtrong exertion, without waiting any longer for French ſuccours. The whole of the United Iriſhmen, throughout the kingdom, or at leaſt in the province of Leinſter, were to act in concert. In one night, the 23d of May, they had determined to ſeize upon the camp at Loughlinſtown, the artillery at Chapel-izod, and the caſtle of Dublin. One hour only was to intervene between the ſeizure of the camp and that of the artillery; and an hour and a half between

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their getting poſſeſſion of the artillery and the attack of the caſtle. And the parties who had executed both the exterior plans, were to enter the city of Dublin at the ſame moment, in order to ſurprize the caſtle. The ſtopping of the mail coaches was to be the ſignal, for the inſurgents every where to begin their operations. The conſpirators, however, were not perfectly agreed, as to the manner of conducting this inſurrection. Some would have the firſt attack made upon the county goal of Kilmainham, and the priſon of Newgate, in order to ſet at liberty their comrades; while others were for deferring the attack of the priſons, till after the other parts of the plan ſhould be executed. And ſo high did the diſputes ariſe, that one party threatened to diſcover the whole plot to government, if the other did not deſiſt.

But Government had already got that intelligence, and the whole plot was completely fruſtrated. The two Sheareſes, whoſe Chriſtian names were John and Hendry, with ſome others of the principal conſpirators, were apprehended on the 21ſt of May, and Samuel Neilſon, who had been an active member of the ſociety in Belfaſt, and one of the proprietors of the Northern Star, and other leading men were taken up on the 23d. The city and county of Dublin were proclaimed in a ſtate of inſurrection by the Lord Lieutenant and Council, the guards at the Caſtle, and all the other objects of propoſed attack, were trebled, and the whole city appeared to be converted into a garriſon. Thus were the rebels prevented from effecting any thing by ſurprize, but they did not give up their arduous enterprize. Though deprived of thoſe men to whom they looked up as their leaders, and almoſt deſtitute of arms or ammunition, the infatuated multitude adventured upon the bloody conteſt.

Though the northern counties had always been conſidered as in the greateſt forwardneſs, the firſt commotions appeared in the province of Leinſter. The preparations made in the city of Dublin prevented any movement there, but at the time appointed ſundry acts of rebellion were committed in that and the neighbouring counties of Meath and Kildare. The mail-coach going to the north was attacked within a few miles of Dublin by a party well armed, on the night of the 23d. The paſſengers were taken, and the coach burned. The Galway coach was likewiſe ſtopped, but the rebels were driven off before they could accompliſh its deſtruction. About half paſt two o'clock, on the morning of the 24th, an attack was made upon the town of Naas, about 14 miles from Dublin, where Lord Gosford commanded. The aſſailants amounted to about one thouſand, armed with muſquets and pikes. However, they were ſoon repulſed by the Armagh militia, and then charged and purſued by the 4th dragoon guards, and Ancient Britons. They had about one hundred and forty killed before they took to flight. Others fell in the purſuit, and ſome were taken priſoners. In this firſt conflict with the rebels, his Majeſty's forces loſt two officers, and about thirty privates.

The ſame day a ſmall detachment, at the town of Proſperous, was ſurprized by the rebels, and cut off. And a party who were at the village of Clare, cut their way through the rebels, and arrived at Naas. An attack was alſo made upon a ſmall party of the 9th dragoons, near Kilcullen, who ſuffered conſiderably; but General Dundas coming up with a conſiderable body of rebels, on the hills near that place, they were entirely routed, with the loſs of two hundred men. Several bodies of rebels were alſo collected in different parts

parts near Dublin, who were diſperſed by the Rathfarnham cavalry, with ſome loſs, and ſome priſoners and horſes were taken. Another party was collected near Dunboyne, on the borders of the county of Dublin, who firſt overpowered ſome conſtables, then ſeized the baggage of two companies, which was coming towards Dublin, guarded by a ſmall party of the Reay fencibles, and committed other outrages. On the 25th, General Craig marched out of Dublin in queſt of them; and though they fled in the night, upon the approach of the troops, the General came up with a party conſiſting of about five hundred. Some of whom were put to the ſword.

The ſame day a body of rebels, amounting to about four hundred, commanded by two gentlemen, of the names of Ledwich and Keough, marched from Rathfarnham, in the neighbourhood of Dublin, along the foot of the mountain, towards Cloudalkin. In their progreſs they were met by a party of thirty-five dragoons, under the command of Lord Roden. After ſome reſiſtance, the rebels, notwithſtanding the diſparity of numbers, were defeated; many of them were ſlain, and their two leaders were taken. They were immediately tried by a court martial, and executed. They pleaded that they had been forced into the ſervice; but as there was neither proof nor probability that this was the caſe, their plea was diſregarded, and they ſuffered. On the 26th another body of inſurgents was defeated by ſome companies of the Reay fencibles, aſſiſted by three companies of yeomanry, on Tallagh-hill, about eighteen miles from Dublin. They left three hundred and fifty dead upon the field, among whom was their commander, who, from different circumſtances, was ſuppoſed to have been an officer in the French ſervice.

At the ſame time alarming commotions appeared in parts

parts more remote from the capital. On the 24th of May, the town of Carlow was attacked by about one thouſand rebels. Their firſt movement was to poſſeſs themſelves of ſome pieces of cannon, which they were ſoon forced to abandon. As at that time it was found neceſſary to have a kind of garriſon in every conſiderable town in the kingdom, Major Dennis was ſtationed at Carlow, with one troop of horſe, and two companies of militia. Theſe, aſſiſted by ſome corps of volunteers, defeated the rebels, killing four hundred of them. It was ſaid that the inhabitants of the town fired upon the King's troops, from their doors and windows; and that the military, in revenge, burnt a part of the town. Nor is it difficult to believe that both might be true. Another ſkirmiſh took place at Monaſtereven, where fifty rebels loſt their lives.

Sir James Duff having marched from Limerick, with a ſmall detachment, with a view to open the communication with Dublin, came to Kildare on the morning of the 29th, which he found in poſſeſſion of a ſtrong body of rebels. He had made diſpoſitions to attack them, but they retired from the town at his approach. He followed them with ſixty dragoons, which made part of his detachment, and ſent a yeoman to the rebels, to inform them, that if they would lay down their arms, they ſhould not be hurt. In the mean time, ſome of the inſurgents fired upon the King's troops, whoſe ardour was no longer to be reſtrained. A general attack was made upon the rebels, who were completely routed, and more than two hundred of them ſlain. Sir James had three men killed, and ſeveral wounded.

But it was in the counties of Wexford and Wicklow, that the rebellion aroſe to the greateſt height. On the 25th of May, the inſurgents appeared in great force, in the

the neighbourhood of Wexford and Enniſcorthy, to the number, as was ſuppoſed, of fifteen thouſand. A detachment of the North Cork militia were ſent out from Wexford, under the command of Colonel Foote, to meet a party of rebels who were advancing towards the town. They marched as far as a place called Oulard, where they were met by the enemy in great force. Owing to the diſadvantage of the ground, the King's forces, after firing three rounds, were completely ſurrounded, and cut to pieces, not a man eſcaping but Colonel Foote and two privates.

Fluſhed with this ſucceſs, the rebels, on the 28th, made an attack upon the town of Enniſcorthy, which they carried ſword in hand; but not without the loſs of five hundred of their men. They are ſaid to have made their attack in the following manner: Having collected a great number of horſes and black cattle, they drove theſe before them, to diſorder the ranks of the loyaliſts. Yet it was thought, that the inſurgents would have been repelled, had not the Catholic inhabitants treacherouſly ſet fire to the town, with a view to ſmother the king's forces, who were defending it.

On the ſame day, the Cork and Donegal militia, who were in Wexford, marched out to a place called the Three Rocks, to meet the rebels; but they found them in ſuch force, that after ſome firing, they found it neceſſary to retreat, and come back into the town. On the 29th a ſmall reinforcement of the Donegal militia entered the town; but a party of the Meath militia, advancing on the ſame ſervice, fell into the hands of the rebels. At this time there were, in the goal of Wexford, three men who had lately been committed for treaſonable practices; Mr Beauchamp Bagenal Harvey, Mr Edward Fitzgerald, and Mr J. Colclough.

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The firſt was a Proteſtant, the other two Catholics; but all men of property, and of conſiderable influence in the country. The greateſt part of the Proteſtant inhabitants of Wexford, who were not on military duty, with numbers of women and children, had got on board the ſhips in the harbour, intending to eſcape to ſome place in England or Wales. On the 30th of May, thoſe who remained in the town aſſembled, together with the officers, for the melancholy purpoſe of conſulting about the beſt method of treating with the rebels; and it was determined to ſend to their camp two gentlemen, Mr Richards, a barriſter, and Dr Jacob, a phyſician, and at that time Mayor of the town, who ſhould make the beſt terms they could, for the lives and properties of the inhabitants. In the mean time, the troops that had been in the place, and along with them ſome women, had made their eſcape to Duncannon fort, which is about twenty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Wexford. About one o'clock, the white flag was diſplayed on the town-houſe, as the ſignal of agreement entered into with the rebels, the ſhips in the harbour, having been unable to ſail, were ordered back to the quay; and ſoon after, the rebels took poſſeſſion of the town. Upon this a ſcene of abominable tumult and outrage enſued. Regardleſs of all articles, they ranſacked the houſes of Proteſtants, and threw the majority of their inhabitants into priſon. The three priſoners abovementioned were ſet at liberty, and Mr Bagenal Harvey was choſen commander in chief of the rebel army.

After leaving a large garriſon in the town, they marched away, under the command of their new General, towards New Roſs, where Major-General Johnſon was poſted, with a conſiderable force. Harvey ſent

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a regular ſummons to the town; but not receiving an anſwer to his mind, he attacked it on the morning of the 5th of June, with great impetuoſity. But after a conflict of ſeveral hours, he was repulſed; and, in the evening, he retired with his army to Carrickburns, leaving behind him ſome ſhip guns, which appears to be the only ſpecies of artillery with which they were provided on the occaſion. In this engagement the ſlaughter of the rebels was prodigious. Of the king's forces there were ninety killed, and about one hundred and thirty wounded and miſſing. Among the ſlain was Lord Mountjoy, Colonel of the militia of the county of Dublin. In revenge for the loſs of this battle, the rebels in Wexford maſſacred, in cold blood, ten of the Proteſtants of Enniſcorthy, whom they had made priſoners. A few days after, ninety five of the loyaliſts of Wexford, were taken out of the priſon, and barbarouſly murdered on the bridge adjacent to the town.

About the ſame time, a party of rebels attacked the ſmall town of Gorey, but were repulſed. Another party, from Vinegar-hill, a ſtrong poſt in the neighbourhood of Enniſcorthy, proceeded, on the firſt of June, to Newton Barry, and ſurrounded the town, in ſuch a manner, that Colonel Leſtrange, of the King's County militia, who had the command there, was, at firſt, obliged to retreat, in order to collect his forces. But he ſoon returned, attacked the rebels, and drove them through the town with great ſlaughter. Their loſs was computed at five hundred killed, though the Colonel's whole force ſcarcely amounted to four hundred.

Theſe ſucceſſes, on the part of his Majeſty's forces were, in ſome degree, counterbalanced by a check which they received on the 4th of June, near the

Slieveboy mountain. Colonel Walpole, on that day, attacked a ſtrong poſt of the rebels in that place. Unfortunately the Colonel was killed by a ſhot in the head, in the beginning of the action; and the corps which he commanded was in a ſituation, where it could not act with advantage. It was, therefore, obliged to retire to Arklow. Thither they were followed by the rebels, who preſented themſelves before the town, on the 9th of the month. General Needham commanded a conſiderable body of the king's forces in the place. The rebels advanced in two ſtrong columns, one along the Coolgrexny road, and the other by the Sand-hills, while the whole intermediate ſpace was occupied by a confuſed rabble, armed with pikes and fire-arms, bearing down without any order. General Needham had choſen a very ſtrong poſition, in front of the Barracks. As ſoon as the enemy came within a proper diſtance, he opened upon them a heavy fire of grape-ſhot, which did as much execution as could be expected, conſidering the nature of the ground, and the ſtrong fences of which the rebels poſſeſſed themſelves. This continued without interruption for two hours and a half, when the enemy deſiſted from the attack, and fled in diſorder, on every ſide. The rebels, as uſual, loſt a great number of men, while the loſs of his Majeſty's forces was inconſiderable.

Hitherto the King's troops had been able to act only on the defenſive; but now General Lake began to advance towards the ſouth, where was the principal ſeat of the rebellion, with the neceſſary reinforcements. On the 11th of June, Major General Aſgill attacked a rebel camp at the Boar, near Roſs, which he diſperſed, killing their commander and fifty men. The main body of the rebels ſtill continued to occupy their ſtrong

ſtrong poſition on Vinegar-hill; from which it would have been almoſt impoſſible to diſlodge them, if they had been ſupplied with proviſions, and poſſeſſed of any degree of military ſkill. General Lake, aware of the difficulties he had to encounter, and deſirous, if poſſible, to cruſh the rebellion in this quarter, by one deciſive blow, made his approaches with great caution. A body of troops was gradually collected from different quarters, and diſpoſed in ſuch a manner as almoſt to ſurround the rebel camp. On the 21ſt of June, the grand attack was made, by orders of General Lake, in different columns, commanded by Generals Dundas, Johnſon, Euſtace, Duff, and Loftus. The rebels maintained their poſition with obſtinacy, for an hour and a half; but, finding themſelves in danger of being completely ſurrounded, they, at length, betook themſelves to flight with great precipitation. The ſlaughter among them was very great, though the number was never properly aſcertained. Thirteen ſmall pieces of ordnance were taken from the rebels in this engagement.

On the day preceding this general action, a ſkirmiſh took place between a detachment of the King's forces under Major General Aſgill, and a party of rebels, near the Blackſtairs mountain; in which upwards of a hundred of the inſurgents loſt their lives. The ſame day a party of the Weſtmeath militia, marching from Clonakilty to Bandon, under the command of Lieutenant Colonel O'Reilly, conſiſting of two hundred and fifty men, was attacked by the rebels, to the number of about three hundred and fifty, armed moſtly with pikes. Theſe were ſoon compelled to retreat. But having regained the height from whence they had deſcended to the attack, they were there joined by a conſiderable force. With great difficulty Colonel O'Reilly

reſtrained the impetuoſity of his men, and was forming them in the plain, when he obſerved the enemy filing off, under cover of a high bank, with an apparent intention to take poſſeſſion of two ſix pounders, which he had with him. At that inſtant, a detachment of the Caithneſs regiment came up. They had been marching to Clonakilry, to replace O'Reilly's party, and hearing the firing at a diſtance, had preſſed forward, though they amounted only to a hundred men; and very briskly fired upon the rebels, who fled precipitately in every direction. At that moment another party of the inſurgents appeared in O'Reilly's rear. Immediately he ordered the guns to be prepared for action; and they were ſoon brought to bear with ſuch effect, that the enemy was ſoon obliged to diſperſe. In this affair the rebels were ſaid to have one hundred and thirty men killed.

Immediately after the engagement at Vinegar-hill, a large detachment of the King's troops advanced towards Wexford, under the command of General Moore, who fortunately entered the town juſt in time to preſerve it from being burnt by the rebels, as well as to ſave the lives of a great number of priſoners, who were to have been put to death the next day. He had two engagements with the inſurgents, by the way, in both which he was ſucceſsful. After the firſt of theſe engagements, he received a meſſage from the inhabitants of Wexford, and from a Captain Keughe, whom the rebels had made Governor there, offering to deliver up the town, upon condition that the lives and properties of all who had been concerned in the inſurrection, ſhould be guaranteed by the Commanding Officer. To this he gave no anſwer, but ſent the propoſal to General Lake, whoſe anſwer was, that he could not treat with

with rebels in arms againſt their Sovereign; yet, to the deluded multitude, he promiſed pardon, upon condition of their delivering up their leaders, ſurrendering their arms, and returning to their allegiance. Upon receiving this anſwer, and finding that any further attempts to defend it would be vain, the rebels evacuated the town, and the King's troops took poſſeſſion of it without reſiſtance, on the 22d of June.

In the mean time, Sir Thomas Williams, commander of his Majeſty's ſhip Endymion, while cruiſing, with a ſmall ſquadron, in the Iriſh Channel, was informed of the intended attack upon Wexford, proceeded off that harbour, with a view to co-operate in the reduction of the place, as well as to prevent the eſcape of the armed veſſels belonging to the rebels, and others of which they had got poſſeſſion, to the number of forty or fifty. He had brought up ſome of his ſmaller veſſels, which attacked the fort at the entrance of the harbour with ſuch effect, that two hundred rebels, who were in it, made a precipitate retreat, leaving behind them their colours flying, and three ſix pounders. The launches then proceeded up the harbour, and when they arrived at the town, found the King's troops juſt marching into it, and the rebels flying in every direction.

Mr Bagenal Harvey, and Mr Colelough, had left the rebel army, diſguſted with the cruelties and oppreſſion which had been exerciſed by them upon the Proteſtants and Loyaliſts, and had concealed themſelves in a cave on one of the Saltee iſlands, which lie in the mouth of the harbour of Wexford. They were diſcovered on the 26th of June, and along with Keughe, the rebel governor, and ſome others, were tried by a court-martial, and executed on the bridge of Wexford.

In the mean time, though his Majeſty was in no reſpect

ſpect diſſatisfied with the conduct of Lord Cambden, the dangerous ſtate of Ireland made him judge it proper to give that kingdom a Lord Lieutenant, whoſe knowledge and experience in military affairs might afford hopes of a ſpeedy termination of the troubles. Accordingly the Marquis Cornwallis arrived at Dublin in that capacity, on the 20th of June. And, though the ſyſtem that had been purſued by his predeceſſor, was not changed, there is no doubt but the preſervation of Ireland was, in a great meaſure, owing to the vigorous and wiſely directed efforts of that illuſtrious Nobleman.

The rebels, after evacuating Wexford, formed a camp at Killymont, and were proceeding towards Gore's-bridge. Of this Sir Charles Aſgill received information on the 23d. He inſtantly collected all the forces he could aſſemble, and marched towards them. Before his arrival, they had defeated a detachment of the Wexford militia, and taken twenty-four of them priſoners. Upon his approach, they moved off towards Leighlin. A few troops that happened to be in that place killed ſixty of them; but night coming on, the General could not purſue them any further. They then took a poſition near Shark-hill. As ſoon as the troops were able to move, Sir Charles marched with nine hundred men to attack them. Before his arrival, they had burnt the whole town, after driving out the few ſoldiers who were in it. Having cleared the town with his guns, he attacked the rebels on all ſides. About four hundred were killed, and the reſt fled. They were commanded by a Prieſt called Murphy, and were ſuppoſed to amount to five thouſand. This happened on the 24th of June. Of the King's forces there were two Captains, two ſubalterns, and ſixteen rank and file killed; ſixty-ſeven wounded, of whom

whom two were field officers, and five privates miſſing.

On the 26th, at ſix o'clock in the morning, Sir Charles attacked the rebels again, at Kilconnel-hill, near Gore's Bridge, where they occupied a ſtrong poſition. His whole army amounted only to one thouſand one hundred and ſix, theirs conſiſted of about five thouſand. Yet they were ſoon defeated. Murphy, their chief, and above one thouſand more were killed, and the remainder were purſued into the county of Wexford, where they diſperſed themſelves in different directions. Ten pieces of cannon, and two ſwivels were taken, together with a large quantity of proviſions, arms, cattle, &c. and their colours. Some ſoldiers alſo were releaſed, who had been taken priſoners the day before, and were doomed by the rebels to ſuffer death. The loſs of the King's army on this occaſion, in killed and wounded, was no more than ſeven men.

On the 25th a body of rebels, conſiſting of ſeveral thouſands, marched to attack Hacketſtown. On ſeeing them approach, Lieutenant Gardiner, with the troops under his command, which amounted only to one hundred and twenty-ſix infantry, and ſeventy-four cavalry, moſt of them yeomanry volunteers, took poſt on the moſt advantageous ground, near the town, to prevent the rebels, if poſſible, from getting poſſeſſion of it. But, after a few rounds, the inſurgents filed off in every direction, with a view to ſurround and cut him off. In this ſituation, Gardiner found it neceſſary to retreat with the infantry, and to line the wall and windows of the barracks. Here the conteſt was maintained for nine hours, in the midſt of flames; for the miſcreants had ſet fire to the town. At length the rebels were forced to retreat, carrying with them thirty

cart

cart loads of their killed and wounded; notwithſtanding which, many of their dead were found in the ſtreets and ditches.

A large body of rebels was poſted at a place called the White Heaps, in the county of Wicklow. On the night of the 14th of July, Major-General Needham and Sir James Duff, marched from their different poſitions, to attack them by ſurprize. The rebels having moved from their poſt early in the morning of the 15th, fell in with Sir James Duff's column, at Wicklow Gap, after a few cannon ſhot, they retreated, and General Duff, purſued. General Needham's column was at too great a diſtance to give their aſſiſtance, but his cavalry joined in the purſuit, which continued for twelve miles, till the rebels ſeemed reſolved to make a ſtand on ſome riſing grounds. Here the regiments of infantry under General Duff coming up with their curricle-guns, the rebels were put to flight, with conſiderable ſlaughter, and diſperſed in every direction.

While the rebellion continued to rage in thoſe parts, a number of atrocities were committed, ſhocking to humanity, beſides thoſe already narrated. At Scollobogue, about eleven miles from Wexford, a number of Proteſtants, who had been taken priſoners, were maſſacred in cold blood, with various circumſtances of barbarity. At the ſame place, not long after, a barn was ſet on fire by the rebels, in which upwards of one hundred Proteſtants were confined, and they were all burnt to death. When any of them attempted to eſcape thro' a ſmall window that was in the barn, they were received on the pikes of the rebels, and thrown back into the flames. An almoſt indiſcriminate ſyſtem of plunder was practiſed among them; nor was it in the power of their leaders to preſerve the ſmalleſt degree of order or diſcipline

diſcipline among their licentious followers. Though the chiefs of the United Iriſhmen, many of them, were enemies to every ſyſtem of religion, the common people were not only rigid Catholics, but they profeſſedly engaged in the cauſe, becauſe they believed "that the heretics, who had reigned upwards of "a hundred years, were now to be extirpated, and "the true Catholic religion eſtabliſhed." In this belief they were encouraged by their prieſts. An earwitneſs deponed, that he heard Murphy, who fell in the battle of Kilconnel Hill, expreſs the above words in a ſermon; in which he alſo added, "Brethren, "you ſee that you are victorious every where; that "the balls of the heretics fly about you without hurt-"ing you; that few of you have fallen, while multi-"tudes of the heretics are dead; and as for the few "that have fallen, it was owing to their deviating "from our cauſe, and their want of faith:" with much more to the ſame purpoſe. They were even told, that their prieſts could catch the balls in their hand, which came from his Majeſty's army, and give them to the rebels to load their guns with. Such Proteſtants as joined the rebel army were obliged to be rebaptized in the Romiſh chapels. And even Mr Harvey and the other chiefs were compelled to hear maſs, and conform themſelves to the other ceremonies of that religion.

Whatever might have been the views of thoſe men whoſe ſpeeches and writings tended to produce this rebellion, which profeſſedly they called Reform, Toleration, Emancipation, &c. it was now manifeſt, that theſe were far from being the things aimed at by the rebels. They never could have been ſatisfied with any other reform, than a total breaking up of all con-

nection with Britain, and a total change of the eſtabliſhed government. And ſo far were they from allowing toleration in matters of religion, that their favourite idea was the abſolute extinction of every religion but their own; and this was their ſtrongeſt motive to action. Many Proteſtants they put to death, becauſe they would not ſubmit to be baptized by Popiſh prieſts; and many, in order to preſerve their lives, ſuffered themſelves to be ſo baptized.

This is probably the true way of accounting for a circumſtance which to many has ſeemed unaccountable; namely, that though the north of Ireland was the firſt focus of ſedition, yet neither were the rebels in that quarter ſo forward in their operations, nor were their movements ſo formidable, as in the ſouth. It has long been known, that in the province of Ulſter there is a greater proportion of Proteſtant inhabitants, than in any other part of Ireland. Of theſe, many are Diſſenters from the Eſtabliſhed Church, who conſider themſelves as much aggrieved by the legal reſtraints under which they lie. Of theſe, multitudes joined the United Iriſhmen at the firſt, in the perſuaſion that reform and emancipation were their real objects; and in the hope that, if theſe were obtained, themſelves as well as the Roman Catholics would obtain a participation of all the privileges enjoyed by the adherents of the religious eſtabliſhment. But they never entertained a thought of riſing in open rebellion againſt the Government. When, therefore, the real deſigns of the conſpirators came to be unfolded, moſt of the Proteſtants who had joined them drew back, and would take no part in the rebellion. Beſides, the attention of Government was more particularly directed to theſe parts; more troops were ſta-

tioned

tioned there, and the magiſtrates and military officers were more on their guard than thoſe in other parts of the kingdom, who had leſs ſuſpicion of what was going forward.

Yet, in the counties of Down and Antrim, ſome alarming commotions took place. On the 7th of June, the magiſtrates of the county of Antrim were to hold a meeting in the county town. A plan was laid by the conſpirators to ſeize upon their perſons, and an inſurrection was made for that purpoſe. Of this, General Nugent, who commanded in Belfaſt, received information, but not in ſufficient time to prevent the inſurgents from taking poſſeſſion of the town of Antrim. However, without loſing any time after he was informed, he ſent off ſome troops againſt them, in three diviſions. Some light dragoons under Colonel Lumley, and a detachment of infantry commanded by Colonel Clavering, were to march to Antrim through Liſburn. Another party, conſiſting partly of cavalry and partly of infantry, under the command of Colonel Durham, was to take the road through Carmoney and Templepatrick. The dragoons under Colonel Lumley arrived firſt, and entered the town of Antrim; but being fired upon from the windows, they were obliged to retreat with the loſs of three of their officers, and two curricle guns. Colonel Clavering, upon his arrival, finding this to be the caſe, and obſerving that the inſurgents were pouring into the town from every quarter, wiſely took poſt on a hill on the Liſburn ſide. In the mean time Colonel Durham with his detachment advanced within half a mile of Antrim, and, after a cannonade of half an hour, drove the rebels out of the town, retook the two pieces of cannon, and purſued the fugitives as

far as Shane's Caſtle and Randel's Town. The loſs of the rebels on this occaſion is not aſcertained. Of the King's troops ſome were killed, and Lord O'Neil and ſome others, both officers and privates, were wounded.

About the ſame time, the inſurgents were repulſed in an attack which they made upon Carrickfergus. But a party of them made priſoners of a few yeomanry at Toome-bridge. Another party having aſſembled near Saintfield, they were attacked by Colonel Stapleton, who at firſt ſuffered ſome loſs, but afterwards put the rebels to flight. Proceeding to Newton Ardes, he found that place in the hands of the inſurgents, and himſelf too weak to attempt to drive them out. Lieutenant-Colonel Stewart, having marched from Blaris, with a part of the Argyle Fencibles, about thirty cavalry, and a few yeomanry, arrived at Ballynahinch, when the rebels were collecting in that place. He made an attack upon them, relieved ſome yeomen whom they had made priſoners, drove them into a wood belonging to Lord Moira, killed forty of them, and diſperſed the remainder.

Indeed, about this time the inſurrection was pretty general in the two counties of Down and Antrim. But the inſurgents were not ſo hearty in the cauſe as their brethren in the ſouth; nor were they perfectly at one among themſelves. A body of two thouſand of them had aſſembled at a place called Donegorr-hill. They had with them a man named M'Cleverty, whom they had carried with them as a priſoner. They quarrelled among themſelves. Owing to this quarrel, and to his perſuaſions, above fifteen hundred of them left the camp, broke and deſtroyed their arms, and declared they would never more carry an offenſive

offenſive weapon againſt his Majeſty or his loyal ſubjects. Many of them diſperſed, and, at laſt, their commander was left with fifty men only. As early as the 9th of June, many had laid down their arms. At Ballymena, one hundred and fifty muſquets and eight hundred pikes were given up to the magiſtrates. And many fire arms, five hundred pikes, and a braſs field-piece, were ſurrendered to Major Seldon.

Yet the ſevereſt engagement that was had with the rebels in thoſe parts, happened after that time. Hearing that a large body of them were again collected at Saintfield, General Nugent himſelf marched againſt them. He came up with them on the 12th of June; and at his approach, they retired to a ſtrong poſition, between Saintfield and Ballynahinch; where they made a ſhew of reſiſtance, endeavouring to turn his flank. But Colonel Stewart coming up with his detachment, they ſoon defiled, and retired to a very ſtrong poſition behind Ballynahinch, where they continued during the night. About three o'clock the next morning, General Nugent, having firſt taken poſſeſſion of two hills, on the right and left of the town, that he might leave no way of retreat for the rebels, but by the mountains in their rear, made a vigorous attack upon them. He ſent Lieutenant-Colonel Stewart, with a party of Argyle Fencibles, ſome yeomanry, and a detachment of light dragoons, to a ſituation where they could enfilade the rebel line, while Colonel Leſlie, with ſome militia, cavalry, and yeoman infantry, ſhould attack them in front. Having with him two howitzers, and ſix field pieces, the general was in a condition to annoy them very much, from different parts of his poſition.

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The rebels attacked Colonel Leſlie's detachment with much impetuoſity. They even jumped into the road, from Earl Moira's demeſne, with a view to take one of the guns, but were repulſed with loſs. With the ſame activity they attacked Colonel Stewart's party, but there alſo they were repulſed. And the fire from the artillery ſoon obliged them to fly in all directions. On the evening of the 12th, they were ſuppoſed to amount to nearly 5000. But, as many of them had been preſſed into the ſervice, and almoſt entirely without arms, it was thought, that, on the morning of the engagement, their numbers were not ſo conſiderable. About 500 of them were ſlain in the attack and retreat, the reſt were diſperſed all over the country. Part of both towns, of Saintfield and Ballynahinch, were burnt. The loſs, on the part of the King's forces, beſides a few of the yeoman infantry, was, one captain and three rank and file killed, and a lieutenant and fourteen privates wounded.

After their defeat at Ballynahinch, the rebels ſent to General Nugent, a petition for pardon, offering to deliver up all their arms and ammunition. In reply, the general promiſed to accept their ſubmiſſion, upon condition of their giving up their commander, who was one Munro, a ſhopkeeper in Liſburn, and others who had been their inſtigators to rebellion. The ſurrender was to have been made on the 15th; but early that morning, Munro was taken by General Nugent. After this they did not re-aſſemble in the north, but many of them ſubmitted, and delivered up their arms in various places.

On the 17th of July, Lord Cornwallis ſent a meſſage to the Iriſh Houſe of Commons, acquainting them,

them, by his Majeſty's command, "That it was his "gracious intention, to grant a general pardon for "all offences committed on or before a certain day, "upon ſuch conditions, and with ſuch exceptions, as "might be compatible with the general ſafety; but "that theſe offers of mercy to the repentant were "not to preclude meaſures of vigour againſt the ob-"ſtinate."

In the mean time, a ſpecial commiſſion was opened in Dublin, for the trial of the principal delinquents. Meſſ. John and Henry Shears, M'Cann and Byrue, were all condemned and executed. And in their fate, the other conſpirators began to read and foreſee their own. Mr Oliver Bond was alſo tried and condemned; but as he had many reſpectable connections, great intereſt was made from different quarters to ſave his life; at length a pardon was granted him, upon condition of his giving ſuch information to Government as he might be poſſeſſed of, relative to the conſpiracy and rebellion. But he did not ſurvive it more than a few days.

A number of other perſons who had been deeply concerned in the rebellion, were now priſoners of ſtate. It appears that the Iriſh Government entered into a kind of negotiation with them; and it was agreed, that their lives ſhould be ſpared on condition of their making a full diſcloſure of all that they knew concerning the rebellion. Among theſe were Arthur O'Conner and his brother, Counſellor Emmat, Dr M'Niven, and Mr Neilſon. The reſult of their examination was communicated to the Houſe of Commons, by Lord Caſtlereagh, in the report of a Secret Committee, on the 21ſt of Auguſt. The account they gave of the riſe and progreſs of the Society of United

United Iriſhmen, of their deſign of ſeparating Ireland from Britain, and effecting a total revolution in the government of the country, of their correſpondence with the French Directory, and the promiſes of aſſiſtance which had been given them by that Government, correſponds exactly with what has been detailed in the preceding part of this chapter. In conſequence of this diſcloſure, the priſoners had their lives ſpared. But the chief of them were ſent over to Fort George in the north of Scotland, where they continued in confinement till the concluſion of the war, when they obtained their liberty, upon condition of baniſhing themſelves from his Majeſty's dominions *.

After the ſignal victory over the rebels at Vinegar-hill, and their conſequent expulſion from Wexford, &c. moſt

* As they were going through Scotland, to the place of their confinement, ſmall ſlips of paper were dropt on the road, in different places, from the carriage in which Arthur O'Connor was, upon which were written two ſtanzas of ſix lines each, which being read ſtraight forward, bore an appearance of exceſſive loyalty; but if a line was read from each ſtanza alternately, they were clearly expreſſive of the man's principles. They are here inſerted, as a kind of curioſity.

The pomp of courts, and pride of kings,
I prize above all earthly things;
I love my country, but the King,
Above all men his praiſe I ſing.
The royal banners are diſplay'd,
And may ſucceſs the ſtandard aid.

I fain would baniſh far from hence,
The Rights of Man and Common Senſe.
Confuſion to his odious reign,
That foe to princes, Thomas Paine.
Defeat and ruin ſeize the cauſe
Of France, her liberties, and laws.

moſt of them diſperſed, and returned to their uſual occupations. But the more deſperate retired to the mountainous part of the counties of Wexford and Wicklow, and there continued, for a while, to maintain a deſultory warfare, till they were completely ſubdued by the ſmall parties of the military, who were ſent out to ſcour the country. On the 12th of July, however, a large party of them were collected, and attacked the town of Clonard; but were repulſed by Colonel Blake, with the loſs of ſixty men. After their defeat, they moved off towards Longwood, from whence they were purſued almoſt to Culmullin, and about thirty were killed in the purſuit.

About the ſame time, they appeared, in conſiderable force, in a different part of the country. Major-General Wemyſs, who had then the command in Drogheda, having received information that a large body of rebels had aſſembled about Garriſtown, and were marching towards Drogheda, he went out againſt them, with what force could be ſpared from the garriſon, and arrived at Duleek on the evening of the 13th of July. The rebels, on hearing of his approach, left their poſition, and retired towards Slane. General Wemyſs followed them, and, by the way, met with General Meyrick, who had marched from Taragh-hill, with a view to attack the rebels at Garriſtown. When they came to Slane, they found that the rebels had left it three hours before, and had paſſed the Boyne above that place. Finding it difficult to come up with them, the General ſent forward ſome cavalry to keep them in check. The cavalry puſhed forward, and found the rebels ſtrongly poſted behind a defile, between two bogs, on the road to Ardee, where the paſs was ſo

narrow as not to admit more than four to march in a breaſt. The cavalry, notwithſtanding, charged with ſpirit, and drove in the outpoſts; but Colonel Maxwell, who commanded them, obſerving the poſition of the enemy, judged it prudent to wait for the coming up of the infantry. In a ſhort time General Wemyſs arrived, with the Sutherland Highlanders, and his battalion-guns. As ſoon as the rebels perceived this, they were thrown into confuſion, and broke in all directions. The cavalry advanced to the attack, and the infantry followed to ſupport them. The enemy then got into the bogs, and were there ſurrounded by the cavalry, who killed all that they met with. The Highlanders entering the bogs, put to death all whom they found there. From theſe circumſtances, the numbers that were killed could not be aſcertained. A great number of pikes, ſwords, muſquets, &c. were taken, and two ſtandards. Thoſe of the rebels who eſcaped, returned acroſs the Boyne towards Garriſtown, where General Myers fell in with and diſperſed them.

After this, many of the rebel corps, in different parts of the country, laid down their arms, and took the benefit of the general amneſty, which was paſſed in Parliament ſoon after this, with the exception of Napper Tandy, and about thirty others, moſt of whom were fugitives in France. Thoſe who ſtill continued to ſtand out, might rather be conſidered as ſo many companies of banditti, lurking in the woods and mountains, and committing nocturnal depredations in the country round them, than as an embodied force.

Some other bills were paſſed in this ſeſſion of the Iriſh Parliament, which deſerve to be taken notice of.

of. One of them gave conſiderable offence to thoſe who called themſelves Patriots. It was a bill of attainder and forfeiture, againſt the blood and property of the late Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Mr Bagenal Harvey, and Mr Grogan. Though this was cried out upon, as "plundering the pittance of the wi-"dow, and the cradle of the orphan," it was certainly juſtified by the law of nations, and the practice of civilized countries. Nor is ſuch a practice without advantage to ſociety at large; as the proſpect of want and miſery to their families and relations may keep back ſome from treaſonable practices, whom even the fear of death would not reſtrain. Another law, with which no perſon could find fault, was an act for granting compenſation to ſuch of his Majeſty's ſubjects who had ſuſtained loſſes in their property, in conſequence of the rebellion, and appointing commiſſaries for carrying it into effect. Upon the whole, the prudent and wiſe mixture of moderation and firmneſs, obſerved by the Marquis Cornwallis, in every part of his adminiſtration, was peculiarly ſeaſonable at this time, and produced the happieſt effects.

It proved an additional happineſs to Ireland, and to Britain itſelf, that the government of France was, at this time, in the hands of men whoſe political knowledge was not equal to their ambition. As the United Iriſhmen had an agent reſident in Paris, the French Directory could not be unacquainted with the ſtate of that country. Had they embraced the opportunity, while the rebel armies kept the field, and ſent over a few frigates and light veſſels, with a ſupply of officers, arms, and ammunition, and a few troops to keep up the ſpirits of the inſurgents, it is

impoſſible to calculate what the conſequences might have been. But Divine Providence ordered it otherwiſe, and to that we are indebted for the preſervation of Ireland, from that ſtate of dependence upon France into which every place on the Continent has fallen, where the French armies have once got a footing. And had they ſucceeded in ſeparating Ireland from Britain, it is manifeſt, that the ſafety and independence of Britain itſelf muſt have been much endangered.

But the French Government were, according to the Scotch proverb, wiſe behind the hand. Towards the end of Auguſt, they ſent out a ſmall force, under the command of General Humbert, who landed at Killala on the 22d of the month. The appearance of a French force excited, as might well be expected in ſuch circumſtances, a general conſternation through the kingdom. Their numbers were greatly exaggerated in the firſt accounts; and ſo formidable did the invaſion appear, that the Lord Lieutenant determined perſonally to take the field, at the head of a conſiderable army. The invading army was brought over in three frigates, not accompanied with any tranſports; and theſe put to ſea again as ſoon as they had landed the troops, which did not amount to more than about one thouſand men. It was very remarkable, that they were joined by few of the natives, compared with what might have been expected from the ſtate in which the country had ſo lately been. And the ſtrictneſs of French diſcipline accorded ſo ill with the licentiouſneſs and diſorder in which the inſurgents had indulged themſelves, that thoſe who did join them found themſelves little at eaſe in their company. It has been

ſaid,

ſaid, that four of them were hanged by General Humbert's orders, for plundering; and that one was cut in pieces by the French, for attempting to murder ſome priſoners.

The firſt movements of Humbert ſhewed him not to be deſtitute of thoſe talents which are requiſite in a general. He ſaw, that to advance with confidence was the moſt likely method, both to encourage his friends to join him, and to intimidate his enemies. He therefore left Killala, and proceeded to Caſtlebar, where General Lake was collecting an army to oppoſe him. He attacked the Britiſh General, on the 27th, who at firſt retreated before him, with the loſs of a few men, and ſix pieces of cannon. After this the French advanced to Tuam, but their progreſs was ſoon ſtopped, by the arrival of the Lord Lieutenant, who came up with them on the 7th of September, and obliged them to make a retrograde motion.

His Excellency had advanced as far as Carrick, where he was informed that the invaders had penetrated ſo far into the country, as to have croſſed the Shannon at Ballintra, where they attempted to deſtroy the bridge; but had been prevented by General Lake, who followed them cloſe at the heels. Having underſtood that they meant to paſs the night at Cloone, he ordered General Lake to proceed thither, while himſelf removed to Mohill, that he might either aſſiſt General Lake in the attack, if the enemy ſhould await his arrival, or cut off their retreat if they attempted to retire.

General Lake, upon coming up, found that the enemy had left their poſition, and were retreating with all poſſible ſpeed, carrying with them all the horſes

horſes they could find. He diſpatched a company of light infantry, mounted behind as many dragoons, to haraſs their rear. Lieutenant-Colonel Crawford, who commanded this detachment, came up with the rear-guard of the French, about ſeven o'clock in the morning of the 8th, at a place called Ballinamuck, and ſummoned them to ſurrender. This ſummons not being attended to, the Britiſh forces commenced the attack, when about two hundred of the French infantry threw down their arms, expecting their comrades to follow their example. In the mean time, General Craddock and ſome other Britiſh officers came up, and the enemy commenced a fire of cannon and muſquetry, by which General Craddock was wounded. Upon this, General Lake ordered up a freſh reinforcement, who began an attack upon every part of the French poſition. The engagement laſted about half an hour, when the reſt of the Britiſh column making its appearance, the whole French army ſurrendered at diſcretion. The rebels who were along with them fled in every direction; but General Lake ſays they ſuffered ſeverely.

In this action, the loſs of the Britiſh was only three men killed, thirteen wounded, and three miſſing. When the return of French priſoners was made, the public were ſurpriſed to find that this army which had ſpread ſuch an alarm in the country, amounted, at laſt, to no more than eight hundred and forty-two, officers included. Of the rebels who had joined the French, ninety-ſix were made priſoners, three of whom were called generals, named Blake, Roach, and Teeling. Three French field-pieces were taken, with five waggons full of made-up ammunition, ſeven hundred ſtand of arms, and a great many pikes.

Nine

Nine pieces of Britiſh cannon were alſo recovered, which the enemy had got poſſeſſion of ſince their landing.

What the French promiſed themſelves by ſending over a force ſo contemptible, is not eaſy to conjecture. But that they did expect ſome effects from it, advantageous to their cauſe, is evident from various circumſtances. General Humbert is ſaid to have publiſhed a proclamation, in the true French ſtyle, ſoon after his landing. Its inſcription is, "Liberty, equality. Army of Ireland." It is dated, "*At the head quarters at Caſtlebar, 14th Fructidor, the 6th year of the French Republic, one and indiviſible.*" And it proceeds thus: "1. The Government of Connaught ſhall reſide at Caſtlebar, till further orders. 2. It ſhall be compoſed of twelve members, to be nominated by the commander in chief of the French army. 3. Citizen John Moore is appointed preſident. 4. Proviſions are required for the French and Iriſh armies. 5. Eight regiments of infantry, and four of cavalry, ſhall be raiſed. 6. The Government will declare rebels and traitors, all thoſe who, having received arms or cloathing, ſhall not join the army in twenty-four hours. 7. Every individual, from ſixteen to forty, is called upon to repair to the French camp, to march in a maſs againſt the Engliſh." This plainly ſhews, that they expected the whole country to riſe and aſſiſt them; but it alſo ſhews, that Ireland was to be wholely dependent upon France, the members of its government were to be choſen by the French general, and to ſtay or remove by his orders.

On the morning of the 16th of September, a French national brig appeared off the ſmall town and iſland of

of Rutland, on the north-weſt coaſt of the county of Donegal, a place of ſo little conſequence as not to be defended by a ſingle ſoldier. Her crew landed at eight o'clock, and among them were General Rey, the notorious James Napper Tandy, with the title of Chef de Brigade, and ſundry other perſons called Generals. They anxiouſly inquired after the fate of the army which had landed at Killala, and were much ſurpriſed and dejected when they were informed of it. They had with them many ſtands of arms, but none of them were landed. They diſtributed among the country-people ſome ridiculous manifeſtoes, which they had got printed in Paris, perſuading them to riſe, and "wage a war of extermination againſt their "oppreſſors." But not one perſon joined them. After ſpending the Sunday in carrying off ſome ſheep and ſwine which they found on the iſland, they quietly reimbarked, and quitted the Iriſh coaſt.

A more ſerious attempt was made by the enemy ſoon after; but, through the interpoſition of Providence, that alſo was happily fruſtrated. It was not made till after the alarm was given, and the Iriſh coaſt was cloſely guarded by the Britiſh navy. In the latter end of September, a ſquadron ſailed from Breſt, with troops on board for Ireland, conſiſting of one ſhip of the line and eight frigates. On the 11th of October they were deſcried by the ſquadron under Sir John Borlaſe Warren, which conſiſted of three ſhips of the line and four frigates. Sir John made the ſignal for a general chace; but, from the enemy's great diſtance and a hollow ſea, it was impoſſible to come up with them till the 12th. At half paſt ſeven in the morning of that day, the action commenced; the Roſſes bearing ſouth-ſouth-weſt, at the diſtance of five leagues

leagues. At 11 o'clock, the Hoche, which was the French line-of-battle ſhip, ſtruck her colours after a gallant defence, and the frigates made ſail from the Britiſh ſquadron. Immediately the ſignal was made to purſue, and about five hours afterwards, three of the frigates alſo hauled down their colours. All of them were heavy frigates, quite new, as was alſo the Hoche, full of troops and ſtores, with every thing neceſſary for the execution of their plans in Ireland. Three more of the enemy's frigates afterwards became prizes to his Majeſty's cruizers, and thus only two of them eſcaped.

On board the Hoche, among other priſoners, was found the arch-traitor Theobald Wolfe Tone, who had long been conſidered as the moſt active negotiator among all the Iriſh fugitives in Paris, and the principal adviſer of all the rebellious meaſures adopted by his deluded countrymen. He was brought to Dublin, and tried by a court-martial. He did not attempt either to deny or excuſe his bearing arms againſt his Majeſty, but pleaded that he was a denizen of France, and an officer in the ſervice of the Republic, and therefore not amenable to the laws of any other country. But as he was born and educated in Ireland, this plea could avail him nothing. When he found this to be the caſe, he requeſted that he might be ſhot, and die like a ſoldier, and not be hanged like a felon. When he ſaw that this would not be granted him, he cut his own throat in the priſon. The wound at firſt was not thought to be mortal; but, after languiſhing a few days, it put an end to his life. In the mean time, his counſel moved for a writ of *habeas corpus* in the court of King's bench, on the ground, "That courts-martial had no juriſdiction

"over ſubjects not in a military ſervice when that "court was ſitting." The writ was granted, and the execution ſuſpended; but before the cauſe could have a hearing, the culprit had gone to anſwer for all his miſdeeds before a higher tribunal.

The rebellion itſelf did not long ſurvive the man who was the chief projector of that ſociety which gave it birth. The few companies of rebels who had hitherto lurked in the woods and mountains, being totally diſpirited by the ill ſucceſs of their allies, and dreading the approach of winter, ſucceſſively laid down their arms. The laſt of their chieftains who ſurrendered himſelf to Government, was one Holt, who, notwithſtanding the failure of his confederates, maintained a deſultory warfare in the mountains of Wicklow, till after the defeat of Humbert. Government permitted him to eſcape beyond ſeas, and thus his forfeited life was preſerved.

In this unhappy conteſt, it has been computed that thirty thouſand perſons loſt their lives; and probably the computation is not exaggerated, if, beſides thoſe who died in battle, and the few that ſuffered by the hand of public juſtice, we include all who were butchered by the rebels in cold blood. Beſides this, many were wounded, and many were tranſported, or tranſported themſelves, in order to avoid the puniſhment of their crimes. And though at that time there were not a few who imputed all this bloodſhed to Government, who, it was ſaid, "goaded the people "of Ireland into rebellion;" yet, after the diſcloſure made by the rebels themſelves, as ſet forth in Lord Caſtlereagh's report, it is preſumed there are now few perſons, either in Britain or Ireland, who will not acquit Government of ſuch a charge. The rebellion

was

was manifeſtly the reſult of a deep conſpiracy, hatched by a number of ambitious and diſcontented perſons, and carried on for ſeveral years together. Theſe men found means to work upon the paſſions and prejudices of the lower orders of the people, ſo as to make them ſubſervient to their own wicked deſigns. At firſt they ſucceeded in drawing many Proteſtants, as well as Catholics, into the ſnare. But when the time drew near for putting their deſigns in execution, and it became neceſſary more fully to develope their plan, then moſt part of the Proteſtants drew back, and few but Roman Catholics could be perſuaded actually to take arms againſt their country.

By the report of the Secret Committee it appears, that the quantity of arms ſeized from the rebels, and ſurrendered by them, in the ſeveral diſtricts of Ireland, amounted to 48,109 guns, 1756 bayonets, 4463 piſtols, 4183 ſwords, 248 blunderbuſſes, 119 muſquet-barrels, 106 ſword-blades, 22 ſwivels, and 70,630 pikes. This ſhews plainly, that a very great number of perſons muſt have been engaged in the conſpiracy.

CHAP. XIV.

Proceedings of the French at Rome, and in Switzerland.—Bonaparte's expedition—Sails from Toulon—Takes Malta—Lands in Egypt—Takes poſſeſſion of Alexandria and Roſetta.—Battle of the Pyramids.—French enter Cairo.—Admiral Nelſon's victory at Aboukir.—Further proceedings of the French in Egypt.—New revolutions in Holland—In the Ciſalpine Republic, and at Rome.—Negotiations broken off between France and America, and between France and Portugal.—Proceedings at Paris, and in the Congreſs at Radſtadt.—Expedition to Oſtend.—Warlike preparations in Ruſſia, in Turkey, and in Auſtria.—The Neapolitan army takes poſſeſſion of Rome, and is driven out of it.—Inſurrection in the Canton of Underwalden, and in Brabant.—Evacuation of St Domingo by the Britiſh forces.—Capture of Minorca.—Malta blockaded, and Goza taken.—Attack upon the Britiſh ſettlers on the Bay of Honduras.—Reflections.

THOUGH the treaty concluded with the Emperor at Campo Formio, and that with the Pope at Tolentino, had left no enemy to the French on the continent; yet it was by no means conſiſtent with republican policy to ſuffer their armies to continue in a ſtate of inactivity. There were ſmall ſtates in Italy and its neighbourhood, which might be ſubdued with little hazard or difficulty. The queſtion of right or wrong

wrong was of too little importance to engage the attention of the Great Nation. And where a quarrel is intended, it is always an eaſy matter either to find or to make an occaſion for it.

It might have been thought that the Pope was ſufficiently humbled by the treaty of Tolentino. But when Joſeph Bonaparte, brother to the General, came to reſide at Rome, as miniſter from the Directory, his *Un*-holineſs found himſelf obliged to ſubmit to things ſtill more humiliating. Among theſe were, the reduction of his troops, the releaſe of all who had been impriſoned for political opinions, the expulſion of all French emigrants from his territory, and the diſmiſſion of General Proveda, who had been ſent by the Court of Vienna for the Papal ſervice.

In the mean time, the Ciſalpine Republic, whether inſtigated by the French or not, we ſhall not pretend to determine, threatened to make war againſt the Pope, becauſe he had not acknowledged their political exiſtence. They even ſeized on the Fort of St Leon, though they met with a bloody reſiſtance from the militia and peaſantry of the neighbourhood. But this ſtorm was diverted by a brief in due form, acknowledging the new republic, and profeſſing a deſire to live in good underſtanding with it.

In Rome and its environs, the partizans of the French Revolution were numerous; inſurrectionary placards were ſtuck up in public places; French ſongs were ſung; the tri-coloured cockade was publicly worn by multitudes; and the political death of the holy ſee was foretold to be at hand, as it was ſaid at that time to be in the act of receiving extreme unction. All theſe mortifications had ſuch an effect upon the Pope's health, that his life was deſpaired of.

This

This was the ſtate of affairs at Rome, when, on the 27th of December 1797, a tumult aroſe, in which two of the Pope's dragoons were killed by the inſurgents, who were ſoon diſperſed, and ſome of their ringleaders committed to priſon; but ſix of them took refuge in the juriſdiction of the French Ambaſſador's palace. This circumſtance, together with their wearing the French cockade, giving occaſion to ſuſpect that they had the ſupport or connivance of the ambaſſador, he went, on the morning of the 28th, to the ſecretary of ſtate, to clear himſelf of ſuch an imputation. During this converſation, a number of people aſſembled in a tumultuous manner before the French palace. Their numbers continued to increaſe till towards evening, when about twenty perſons entered the gate, loudly demanding the aid of the French Republic, as their liberty was now aſſured. At the ſame time the tumult increaſed without, and the cry of *the Republic* and *the Roman people* was echoed through the courts of the palace and the adjoining ſtreets.

The French officers who were with the Ambaſſador propoſed to drive the inſurgents from the juriſdiction of the palace by force. But Joſeph, more pacifically diſpoſed, put on his inſignia of office, and went forth to addreſs the multitude. In this he was prevented by a diſcharge of muſquetry from a party of cavalry, who, in traverſing that juriſdiction, fired upon the inſurgents in the court. He advanced between the inſurgents and the military, and demanded of the latter, by what authority they violated his juriſdiction; which forced them to a momentary retreat. A tedious ſkirmiſh enſued, in which the French General Duphot and two or three others were killed. The Spaniſh and Tuſcan ambaſſadors at length coming up, found means to put an end to this ſcene

of

of confuſion, after it had continued for more than two hours.

It muſt be admitted, that the law of nations was violated by the attack made upon the inſurgents within the ambaſſador's juriſdiction; but it was aſſerted by the Spaniſh ambaſſador, that the Pope was wholly ignorant of it; and the aſſertion was univerſally believed. Indeed no accuſation was ever brought againſt Government by the French miniſter himſelf on that account. On the other hand, it cannot be denied, that the firſt violation was on the part of the Frenchman himſelf, in his giving refuge to men in open rebellion; ſix of whom had continued with him ſince the preceding day. It was ſuſpected by many, with what juſtice cannot here be determined, that the whole affray was the effect of French intrigue, in order to obtain a pretence for doing what they afterwards did. However this be, that ancient city, after all former depredations, ſtill held out a prize too valuable to be neglected by Directorial rapacity, when ſo fair an opportunity to ſeize upon it was preſented.

Accordingly the ambaſſador left Rome the ſame evening at 9 o'clock, and went to Florence; from whence he ſent a letter to inform the Directory of what had happened: upon the receipt of which they immediately arreſted the Papal miniſter at Paris, and ſent orders to General Berthier, in Italy, to march his army againſt that ancient capital of the world. The Court of Rome, conſcious of their own weakneſs, neglected no means within their power to avert the impending blow. Prayers, proceſſions, and all the pageantry of ſuperſtition, were employed on the one hand; and on the other, couriers were tired out with meſſages conceived in the moſt abject terms of ſubmiſſion to the French Government. But all was in vain.

Berthier

Berthier marched to Rome, at the head of the French and Cifalpine armies, without meeting with any reſiſtance. His entrance into the city was preceded by a proclamation, in which he declared, that the ſole object of his viſit was to puniſh the murderers of Duphot, and that the people of Rome ſhould find in the French army friends and protectors. Upon this, the mob aſſembled in the Campo Vaccino, proclaimed the Roman Republic, and planted the tree of liberty, according to the revolutionary cuſtom.

The Pope, in the mean time, with thoſe more particularly attached to him, remained ſtupified and trembling in the Vatican. But, willing to make one effort more to prevent his political annihilation, he ſent two cardinals, and Prince Giuſtiniani, accompanied by the Neapolitan miniſter, to General Berthier, where he lay encamped without the walls, to purchaſe a continuance of his exiſtence, by a liberal offer of provinces and millions. But the General refuſed to admit any deputation, unleſs from the Roman people. Such a deputation ſoon made its appearance, informed him of the revolution that had taken place, and invited him to ſanction it, by joining them in a ſolemn proceſſion to the capitol. Berthier accepted the invitation, and having aſcended that hill, he, in an addreſs to the manes of Cato, Brutus, Cicero, and Hortenſius, declared, that the deſcendants of the Gauls were come to eſtabliſh the altars of liberty; and exhorted the Romans to reſume their ancient greatneſs, and emulate the virtues of their anceſtors. He ſet aſide, however, the proviſional government, which the rebels had inſtituted, and another was erected, under the denomination of Conſulate, conſiſting of ſix members; of which

which Reganti, a lawyer, and a chief of the party, was preſident, and Baſſal, a French prieſt, who had been a terroriſt-member of the National Convention, was made ſecretary.

Some of the cardinals, aware of the fury of a revolutionary ſtorm, had timeouſly fled from the city; but the far greater part had remained. They who fled had their eſtates confiſcated; the reſt, after a forbearance of a few days, were confined, as priſoners, in one of the convents at Rome; except a few, who, pleading the privilege of diſeaſe, were permitted to continue priſoners in their beds of ſickneſs. From their priſon they were carried to Civita Vecchia, where they were threatened with baniſhment to ſome inhoſpitable ſhore. This threat was not miſunderſtood. Moſt of them found means to procure their liberty, by the ſurrender of their wealth, which was the principal object for which their enemies thirſted. Having thus regained their freedom, they took the opportunity to fly, in the habit of private citizens, from that land, where their preſent humiliation formed ſuch a contraſt with their former grandeur.

The greateſt part of the Roman nobility ſubmitted, without murmur, to the loſs of their rank and titles; content to be allowed to continue in poſſeſſion of their revenues, though theſe were conſiderably diminiſhed by extraordinary contributions. A few of them, however, more artful than their brethren, took an active part in that revolution which they could not prevent, and were named to the principal offices in the new government.

In the mean time, the degraded Pontif continued in his palace, under confinement, and in anxious uncertainty about his fate, till the French commiſſaries, judging his continuance in Rome inconſiſtent with

the ſafety of the new government, ſent him an order to quit the city, which was delivered to him by an officer of the name of Calvin. He retired, at firſt, to Sienna, where he took up his reſidence in the convent of St Barba. But an earthquake having demoliſhed part of the buildings in that place, he removed to Chartreuſe, two miles from Florence, where he held his little court; but, for fear of giving umbrage, offered to leave the nomination of his officers, and the regulation of his houſehold, to the French miniſter at the Court of Tuſcany. Plans were laid for his removal, firſt into Spain, and then into Sardinia. But the ſtate of his health rendered the execution of theſe plans impoſſible. He, accordingly, continued in that place, till events which may come to be mentioned afterwards occaſioned his removal into France. In the mean time, though deprived of all temporal dominion, his ſpiritual authority continued to be recogniſed by all Catholic princes and people. And his functions were performed by a biſhop, under the name of his Vicegerent, in the Roman Republic.

The temporal power entruſted, by the French General, to the proviſionary government, was, at length confirmed by a conſtitution made at Paris, on the model of that of France. Only the claſſical names of Conſuls, Senate, Tribunes, Queſtors, &c. were ſubſtituted for thoſe of Directory, Councils, and Miniſters. And, leſt the new citizens of Rome ſhould not know how to appreciate or preſerve their liberty, it was enacted, That, for the ſpace of ten years, the French General ſhould have a vote in the formation of laws; with ſome other attributes, which, though not very agreeable to the rights of man, were thought by

by the French Government to be neceſſary infringements upon the liberty granted to the Romans.

The groſs inſult committed by the French Directory upon the Swiſs cantons, as mentioned in a former chapter, was only the introduction to a project, which they had already formed, for the total ſubjugation of the Helvetic confederacy. Towards the cloſe of the year 1797, they began to put that project in execution. The conduct which France had purſued with regard to Venice, Genoa, and Rome, was now matured into a ſyſtem. With them, war, the worſt of human calamities, and the laſt reſource of human reſentment, had become a trade. Their unoccupied legions muſt levy a ſubſiſtence upon their defenceleſs neighbours. And Switzerland was to be attacked, for no other reaſon, but becauſe it was thought incapable to make any effectual reſiſtance.

The firſt hoſtile movement on the part of the French, was their taking poſſeſſion of the Helvetic part of the biſhoprick of Baſle, contrary to an expreſs treaty concluded with the Swiſs in the year 1792. While that unſuſpecting people were flattering themſelves with hopes of obtaining redreſs, and terminating all differences with France, by negotiation, an inſurrection which broke out in the *Pays de Vaud*, probably by French inſtigation, at leaſt through the influence of French principles, afforded a fuller pretext for the overthrow of their ancient government. In the month of December, the French Directory thought proper to take part in this domeſtic diſpute; demanding of the government of Berne, what they called a reſtoration of the rights of that people, and the aſſembling of the ſtates of the Pays de Vaud, in their ancient form. To cut off all pre-

tence for a quarrel, the ſupreme council of Berne iſſued a proclamation, on the 5th of January 1798, enjoining the citizens of the Pays de Vaud to aſſemble in arms, to renew the oath of allegiance, and immediately to proceed to reform every abuſe of the government, reſuming all their ancient rights. This did not ſatisfy the diſcontented party. They proceeded to open rebellion, ſeized the caſtle of Chillon, and committed ſimilar outrages in other parts of the province. The government of Berne now determined to reduce the inſurgents by force; and General Weiſs was diſpatched with an army of twenty thouſand men, to diſperſe them. Whether this officer was influenced by lenity towards the deluded multitude, or whatever elſe was his motive, it is certain, that his inactivity ſerved to increaſe both the numbers and the audacity of the rebels, till the approach of a French army, which came to their aſſiſtance, under General Menard, decided the conteſt in their favours.

Menard, on paſſing the boundaries, diſpatched an aide-de-camp to General Weiſs, attended by two huſſars. On their return, an affray took place, at a village called Thiereus, in which one of the French huſſars was killed. Though it cannot be ſuppoſed that the Government had any concern in this, Menard conſidered it as a declaration of war. His troops immediately advanced, while thoſe of General Weiſs retired; and by the beginning of February, the whole of the Pays de Vaud was in poſſeſſion of the French. Still the government of Berne hoped to divert the ſtorm that threatened them. The ſentinels, who had killed the huſſar at Thiereus, were delivered up, and freſh negotiations were entered upon,

on. In the mean time, new inſurrections were planned, in different parts. And in the ſeditious aſſemblages, Mengaud the French envoy was obſerved to take a decided part. On the 2d of January, he even reclaimed ſome perſons who had been apprehended for ſedition, as friends and allies of the French Republic. To this reclamation little attention was paid. And the ſtandard of rebellion having been erected at Arau, the Government determined on effective meaſures for its ſuppreſſion. The militia marched to the place. The town and province of Arau were ſoon reduced, and the ringleaders of the inſurrection were taken into cuſtody.

War appearing now inevitable, the ſupreme council of Berne found it neceſſary to take ſome methods to conciliate the minds of the people; many of whom were known to be much alienated from the preſent Government. They therefore decreed, that fifty-two deputies, from the principal towns and communes, ſhould be added to the council. And, on the 2d of February, theſe new deputies took their ſeats. The reſult of their deliberations was a proclamation, declaring their reſolution to reform all abuſes in the government, and make ſuch changes in the conſtitution of the Cantons as the good of the country ſhould require. They promiſed, that, within a month, a commiſſion ſhould be appointed, to prepare a conſtitution, the baſis of which ſhould be an equal repreſentation of the people; that all public places and employments ſhould be acceſſible to every citizen; and that after paying ſalaries, according to the ſervices and merits of thoſe employed, the reſt of the revenues ſhould be applied to the exigencies of the ſtate; that a conſtitution on this plan

ſhould

ſhould be offered to the people, for their acceptance or rejection, within the ſpace of a year; and that, in the mean time, a commiſſion ſhould be inſtituted, for performing the functions of government. The example of Berne was followed by the cantons of Lucerne, Fribourg, Schafthauſen, Soleure, and Zurich.

While the Government thus yielded to the wiſhes of the people, they declared their firm reſolution to maintain their independence, and to make ſuch changes in their conſtitution as ſhould be found neceſſary, without any foreign interference. A defenſive force was therefore prepared of 20,000 men, and ſtationed on the frontiers, under the command of M. d'Erlach, who had formerly been a field marſhal in the ſervice of France. And the other cantons ſent their quotas to the aſſiſtance of Berne, to the amount of 5,500. In the mean time, negotiations were carried on with the French Directory, but without effect. Though what was done by the governments of the different cantons had ſatisfied the people of Switzerland, it was far from coming up to the wiſhes of the Directory. Their commiſſary at Baſle inſiſted, that the exiſting government ſhould abdicate; that a proviſionary organization ſhould immediately take place into which no magiſtrate ſhould be admitted who had ſhewn attachment to the old ſyſtem. He ſoon after publiſhed a proclamation, aſſuring the Swiſs people that France had no project to invade their country, but only to overturn their corrupted governments, and to ſubſtitute others more conformable to its own ſyſtem.

Some of the cantons became auxiliaries of the French Directory. Among theſe that of Baſle took the lead

head. From their proximity to France, the people of this canton had drunk in a larger portion of revolutionary ſpirit. Among the light-headed partizans of the French ſyſtem in that part of Switzerland, Ochs the chancellor bore a chief place; a man whoſe vanity was as unbounded as his knowledge was limited. This man, aſpiring to the character of an univerſal reformer, had already drawn up the form of a conſtitution, which he preſented to the Directory, and which, after being approved and amended by them, was deſtined to ſerve as the baſis of the government of Switzerland, and the teſt of republican civiſm.

The French army in the Pays de Vaud was now commanded by General Brune, who had ſucceeded Menard. To him the Council of Berne diſpatched two of its members to offer anew the terms contained in their late proclamation, upon condition of his quitting their territory, and retiring to a certain diſtance from the frontiers. His anſwer was, that he could not accede to theſe conditions, without the permiſſion of his Government; but he agreed to a truce of fifteen days, that he might have time to receive the inſtructions of the Directory. The truce was to expire on the 1ſt of March, and the Council had already ſent orders to General d'Erlach to commence hoſtilities on the evening of that day. But theſe orders were revoked two days after, upon their receiving a meſſage from Brune, intimating that his inſtructions had arrived, and he was ready to negotiate.

Two members were again ſent to Payerne, where Brune had his head-quarters, to hear and to treat. The terms which he propoſed as the ultimatum of the Directory were ſtill more extravagant than thoſe which

which had been required by the commiſſary at Baſle. They inſiſted on the immediate reſignation of the exiſting powers, the creation of a proviſionary government, the diſmiſſion of the Swiſs armies, the calling of the primary aſſemblies within a month, and a number of other things equally abſurd and extravagant. To ſuch conditions the deputation could not agree. A further truce of thirty hours was agreed to; but before the firſt truce had expired, the French commenced hoſtilities by an attack upon the caſtle of Dornack, which they carried. On the following day, the village of Lagnau, an important poſt, which covered Soleure, was taken by Schawenbourg. On the menacing and brutal ſummons of that General, the city of Soleure opened its gates to him without reſiſtance. The following day, the Senate was diſſolved, five of its members ſent as hoſtages to Huninguen, and a proviſional government inſtituted. In the mean time, another diviſion of Brune's army ſummoned Fribourg to ſurrender. The magiſtracy acceded, on condition that time was given for the evacuation of the place by the troops of Berne. The time allowed having elapſed, the magiſtrates intimated to the French General, that they were no longer maſters of the place; being under the controul of the Berneſs ſoldiers and the peaſantry, amounting to five or ſix thouſand men. An attack was immediately ordered, and, after a ſhort reſiſtance, the French entered at one end of the town, while the ſoldiers and peaſantry went out at the other, carrying with them the cannon and ſtores of the arſenal, and joined the main army, poſted on the river Senſen. The regency was depoſed, and a proviſionary government ſubſtituted in its place.

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By the capture of Soleure and Fribourg, the French had become maſters both of the right and the left of the Swiſs army, which compelled its generals to change their poſition in order to cover Berne. But that army was no longer in a ſtate of ſubordination. A part of them marched to Berne, where they murdered their officers, and then returned to their poſts; a part diſbanded and returned home; a part kept out of the way, either of attack or defence; and another part, ſhaking off the authority of their officers, did whatſoever ſeemed good in their own eyes.

In this emergency, the magiſtrates of Berne, reduced to the laſt extremity, had recourſe to the raiſing of the people in a maſs. The people aſſembled at their call; but their firſt act was the diſſolution of the regency; they then elected a proviſionary government, and diſbanded the army. Theſe having been held out by Brune, as the terms of pacification, they loſt no time to inform him of what they had done, hoping that no more would be required of them. But he now inſiſted upon their receiving a French garriſon into the city. This arbitrary requiſition once more excited univerſal indignation, and further reſiſtance was determined on, after all reſiſtance was manifeſtly vain.

The remains of the Swiſs army occupied a line, forming a ſemicircle, to the weſtward of Berne, at the diſtance of eight or ten miles, but they did not amount to half the number of the French, to whom they were oppoſed. The army under Brune marched in three columns, to attack the Swiſs poſts, early on the morning of the 5th of March. The principal force of both armies met at Neuenech, a village on the river Senſen, between Berne and Fribourg. The

combat laſted ſeveral hours, with varied ſucceſs. The Swiſs, though inferior both in numbers and diſcipline, fought with deſperate courage, and made a dreadful carnage among their enemies; but at length were obliged to quit the field of battle. At the ſame time, the poſts at Schahinen, on the road between Berne and Soleure, where General d'Erlach himſelf commanded, were attacked by Schawenbourg. Diſlodged from thence, the Swiſs retreated to Frauenbrun, where they made a ſtrong reſiſtance. Again they formed at Urtenon, where they ſuſtained another attack. Forced from thence, they retreated in good order, and took a ſtrong poſition near the heights of Altmerchingen, where they were defended by a chain of rocks on their right, and a foreſt of pine, with marſhy ground, on their left. Here, obſtructing the road with felled trees, and placing ſtrong palliſades in the front, they ſtopped the purſuit of the French army for a time, and killed many of them. Overpowered by numbers, they fled from this place, leaving their artillery behind them, and formed a fifth time, on the heights before Berne. Here they were joined by a confuſed multitude from the town, and the battle was renewed with the ſame obſtinate courage, and with more dreadful execution. Even women and children fell uſeleſs victims to an unavailing reſiſtance. The capitulation of the proviſionary government put an end to further hoſtilities, and preſerved the city of Berne from the horrors of an aſſault. The loſs of the Swiſs, in the ſeveral engagements of this day, was computed at two thouſand, and that of the French at eighteen hundred.

The remainder of the Swiſs army, on hearing of the ſurrender of Berne, were forced to retreat. The mountains

mountains to the ſouth of Berne had always been conſidered as inacceſſible to the invaders. Thither, therefore, the Swiſs Generals propoſed to have led their troops. But the ſoldiers, furious on account of their defeat, turned their rage againſt their officers, many of whom they maſſacred, and among the reſt General d'Erlach himſelf, whoſe bravery deſerved a better fate. In conſequence of theſe exceſſes, the army was completely diſorganized and diſperſed.

The French ſoldiers in Berne were reſtrained by the preſence of their officers; but in the country around they were guilty of numberleſs atrocities, and the moſt brutal violence, even to women and children. Some of them were puniſhed by their General, but many more were killed by the peaſantry, in the commiſſion of their crimes. Brune himſelf, though he had promiſed to the Swiſs, the ſecurity of their property and independence, ſeized the public treaſure, the public ſtores, arſenal, cannon, and all other property belonging to the ſtate. The ſubmiſſion of Berne was followed by that of the other cantons in the plains. Upon an intimation from the French General, that the acceptance of the new conſtitution ſhould be the condition of peace, the ſeveral governments laid aſide their proviſional authority, the tree of liberty was every where planted, and the primary aſſemblies, being convened, choſe deputies to the national meeting which was about to take place.

But this ſpirit of fraternity had not made ſuch progreſs in the mountainous parts of Switzerland. Deputies from the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Underwalden, and Glaris, met Brunnen, reſolved to maintain their ancient government, and invited the cantons

of St Gall and Appenzel to join in the confederacy. They ſent a declaration of their ſentiments to General Brune, intimating, that as they poſſeſſed nothing but their religion, their liberty, and their flocks, they hoped the French would allow them to enjoy thoſe in peace. Brune's anſwer was, that if they accepted the new conſtitution, the French armies ſhould not viſit them. Upon receiving this, they reſolved to defend their preſent government, againſt any attack that ſhould be made.

In the mean time, Brune was recalled, and the command of the army in Switzerland was entruſted to Schawenbourg. And as Mengaud, the commiſſary, had only filled up the part allotted to him with inſolent menace, Le Carlier was ſent with more ſubſtantial orders. Upon his arrival, a contribution of fifteen millions of livres was levied on the members of the late governments. This occaſioned remonſtrances, and even ſome diſturbance, in ſome of the cantons that had ſubmitted. Theſe cantons had ſent their deputies, to form a legiſlative aſſembly at Arau; but their proceedings were not exactly concordant with the views of the Cabinet of the Luxembourg. Ochs, the artificer of the revolution, was not included in their liſt of directors; and inſtead of implicitly reviewing the conſtitution that had been given them, they had the aſſurance to appoint a commiſſion to take it under review, and point out ſuch changes and modifications as ſhould be judged expedient. But the vengeance of the Directory for this act of diſobedience, was, for the preſent, delayed.

The united cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Glaris, and Underwalden, had raiſed an army compoſed of hardy mountaineers,

mountaineers, who, on this occaſion, proved themſelves not unworthy of their anceſtors, who, in former ages, had ſet bounds to the tyranny of the Houſe of Auſtria. In the ſeveral battles which were fought on the frontiers of theſe cantons, the French loſt upwards of two thouſand men. But againſt a ſuperiority of numbers, which was daily increaſing, there was no hope of effectual reſiſtance. Their chiefs, therefore, offered terms of capitulation, to which Schawenbourg acceded. The conſtitution was accepted, on condition that no contributions ſhould be levied, nor any French troops ſent within their territories. The inhabitants of the Upper Vallais, having received ſupplies of arms and ammunition from theſe cantons, poured down from their mountains, took poſſeſſion of Sion, and arreſted the members of the temporary government. But, after the ſubmiſſion of the united cantons, this, and ſome leſſer inſurrections that took place in different quarters, were ſoon quelled.

The French Directory, having now nothing to dread from reſiſtance, had time to think of the means of revenging the affront offered them, in the rejection of Ochs by the Aſſembly at Arau. Accordingly, Rapinat, brother-in-law to the Director Rewbel, was ſent, as their commiſſary, into Switzerland. The mandate of extortion on the late Patricians had been but ſlowly obeyed. To enforce the payment, new hoſtages were ſent to Hunninguen. The ſeals of Rapinat were ſet upon all the public coffers of the cantons. To prevent the conſummation of the pillage, the conſtituted authorities ſet the national ſeals by the ſide of thoſe of Rapinat: But he tore off the wax, and told them, that their utmoſt power was limited

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to the right of petition and remonſtrance; but that any oppoſition to the operations or orders of the French Government ſhould meet with its due puniſhment. A levy of near a million Sterling was impoſed upon the convents of Switzerland, and exacted with great rigour. And the famous abbey of Engidlen, on account of its active oppoſition to the progreſs of the French, was levelled to the ground.

At length Rapinat was inveſted by the Directory with all powers, civil, political, and financial, with undiſputed ſupremacy over the army, and with power to baniſh from the Swiſs territory, all whoſe conduct was undeſerving the confidence of the Directory. This the Swiſs could not at firſt underſtand, but ſoon were furniſhed with an explanation. A ſtroke of Rapinat's pen annihilated both legiſlative and executive powers in Switzerland. Two members of the Helvetic Directory were depoſed; miniſters and ſecretaries were ſwept away; and the repreſentation of the people was threatened with mutilation and oſtraciſm. Theſe proceedings raiſed ſo much indignation, even in Paris itſelf, that the Directory found it convenient to diſavow them, and Rapinat was recalled. But the French General was inſtructed to inform the Council, that though Rapinat's nomination of Ochs and Dolder to the two places in the Swiſs Directory, which he had made vacant, was diſannulled, yet the French Directory recommended theſe two men, as the moſt fit to perform the duties of that important ſtation. Ochs was accordingly choſen into the Directory, and the maſters of Switzerland were pacified.

As the Helvetic Aſſembly had compounded for their independence by the nomination of Ochs, and as little more was to be got by plunder, the French

French Directory now began to relax a little in their conduct towards Switzerland. Moſt of their troops were withdrawn; thoſe which remained were kept upon French pay; the payment of Rapinat's fines was remitted; and the hoſtages that had been ſent into France were releaſed. A treaty of alliance, offenſive and defenſive, was concluded between the two republics; the French engaged to reſtore the artillery which they had carried away during the war, provided the Swiſs would bear the expence of the conveyance; and the farce was concluded with a promiſe of a treaty of commerce, on terms the moſt advantageous to both republics.

Thus were the Swiſs, formerly the moſt free, the moſt valiant, and yet the moſt inoffenſive and peaceable people on the continent of Europe, without any provocation given on their part, brought into a ſtate of the moſt abject ſubjection to France; a ſtate in which, it appears, they muſt yet continue, notwithſtanding their manifeſt deſire for the reſtoration of their ancient liberty. This event has been the more particularly recorded here, becauſe it ſhews in the cleareſt light what faith was due to the profeſſions of the French Republican Demagogues, that they would not interfere with the internal government of other nations, what was the true meaning of that decree, of the 19th of November 1792, which was a principal occaſion of Britain's being engaged in the war, and what ſhe might have expected, had our Government been ſo fooliſh as to accept their explication of that decree. In a word, there needs no more but their conduct towards the Swiſs cantons to prove, that theſe revolutioniſts, from firſt to laſt, regarded neither the claims of humanity, of juſtice,

nor

nor of good faith, when they ſtood in the way of the gratification of their own avarice or ambition.

After Bonaparte's return to France, which was mentioned in a former chapter, he conſulted with the Directory the plan of future operations. Finding the ſcheme of an invaſion of Britain impracticable, or at leaſt extremely doubtful, they determined upon an expedition to Egypt. In this they paid no more regard to juſtice than in their other expeditions. They had been, hitherto, in friendſhip and alliance with the Turkiſh Government. They had nothing to complain of in the conduct of that Government towards them. They even had the effrontery to pretend, that when they invaded the dominions of the Grand Seignior, it was with no hoſtile intention. What was the real deſign of this expedition, appeared a myſtery to the greateſt part of Europe; but it afterwards appeared plainly, that they aimed a blow againſt Britain in her moſt vital part. Whether they intended to march their army over land, from Egypt to India, or, by eſtabliſhing themſelves in Egypt and Syria, to draw the commerce of India, by the Red Sea, into France, or whether both theſe entered into their plan, it is now no matter of doubt, that the ruin of our empire in the Eaſt, and of our trade to that part of the world, was the real deſign of that armament.

While preparations were making ſecretly for this romantic enterpriſe, Britain was amuſed, and an attempt made to divert her attention, by loud threatenings of a formidable invaſion. An army was collected in the northern coaſts of France, and the moſt abſurd and monſtrous ſtories were propagated, to increaſe our alarm. One day we were told that the French

French had deviſed a plan to convey their troops over under water, to evade the ſight of our fleet. Another day we were aſſured, that they were conſtructing rafts, ſo large that one of them was to bring over 10,000 men, with horſes, cannon, and all other implements of war. All this while the navy of France was repairing, with all poſſible ſecrecy, to Toulon, and Bonaparte had gone thither to collect his army.

It was on the 20th of May 1798 that Bonaparte ſailed from Toulon, with fifteen ſail of the line and frigates, accompanied by more than two hundred tranſports, having 40,000 troops on board, chiefly veterans of the Italian army. The fleet was under the command of Admiral Brueys. Numbers of learned and ſcientific men were embarked along with the ſoldiers; and air-pumps, electric machines, printing-preſſes, and mathematical inſtruments, were heaped together with balls, cannon, and gun-powder. Arriving off Malta, on the 9th of June, they demanded leave to water the fleet. Apprehenſive of danger in admitting ſo large and formidable an armament, the Grand Maſter refuſed; and the French General prepared for an attack upon the place. Next day the troops were landed, under a heavy cannonade from the forts. The iſland of Goza was taken poſſeſſion of by one diviſion, while another was employed in reducing the ſouthern parts of Malta. Moſt of the inhabitants took refuge in the forts, while the French made preparations to preſs the ſiege with vigour. A ſortie was attempted, which the French eaſily repulſed; and the ſtandard of the order fell into their hands. Upon the whole, however, the reſiſtance made by the Malteſe was feeble. And on the 11th the Grand Maſter propoſed a capitula-

tion, by which the iſland, and all its dependencies, was ſurrendered to the French. The conditions were, that the Grand Maſter ſhould enjoy a penſion of 300,000 livres a-year; and that the Republic ſhould uſe its influence with the Congreſs at Radſtadt, to procure him a principality equal to that which he had loſt. The other Knights were to have 700 livres a-year during life; their property, and that of the inhabitants, was to be reſpected, as well as their religion and privileges; and ſuch of the Knights as were Frenchmen, might either continue in Malta, or return to France. This ſpeedy ſurrender, on terms ſo advantageous to the Grand Maſter, gave good ground to believe, that there had been a previous good underſtanding between the contracting parties; more eſpecially conſidering the ſtrength of the place, and the glorious defence it had formerly made againſt the common enemy of Chriſtendom. In the port were two ſhips of the line, a frigate, and four gallies. And the fortreſs contained twelve hundred pieces of cannon, fifteen thouſand weight of powder, forty thouſand muſquets, and other warlike ſtores.

Leaving a garriſon of 3000 men in Malta, the French General ſet ſail on the 19th of June, his fleet being increaſed by ſixty ſail of tranſports from Civita Vecchia, which had arrived at Malta before him. He directed his courſe towards the north-eaſt, ſailing by the iſland of Candia, and arrived, on the 1ſt of July, at Marabou, about ten leagues weſt of Alexandria. There he landed four or five thouſand of his men, and led them forward, though without artillery, to Pompey's Pillar. On the 4th, he took the city of Alexandria by aſſault, driving out the Arabs and Mamelukes who defended it, and killing about

300

300 of them. After he got poſſeſſion of the city, the tranſports came up into the old port, and the reſt of his troops were landed; but the men of war anchored in the road of Aboukir. Bonaparte, on entering the city, aſſembled the Turkiſh chiefs, and told them, that his only deſign in paying them this viſit, was to deliver them from the tyranny of the Beys; and having exacted of them an oath of fidelity, he left moſt of them in poſſeſſion of their places.

Having continued in Alexandria three days, to complete its organization, he left a garriſon in it, under the command of General Kleber, and marched through the deſart to Roſetta. He entered this city without reſiſtance, and, leaving another garriſon there, under General Menou, he marched up the river towards Cairo, followed by a ſmall fleet, which conveyed his ammunition, and was headed by gun-boats, to keep off the veſſels of the Mamelukes, which ſometimes obſtructed the navigation, and to diſperſe the bands of Arabs which hung upon their flanks. Hitherto the French General had met with no remarkable oppoſition; but when he drew near to Giza, he found Murad Bey, who had aſſembled all his forces, with a view to prevent his further progreſs. Here a bloody engagement took place, which is called by the French The Battle of the Pyramids. The Mamelukes, mounted on Arabian horſes, to the number of 10,000, fought with deſperate courage for a ſhort time. But many of them being killed, and many drowned in the Nile; the reſt, together with Murad their leader, retreated into Upper Egypt. The French ſoldiers found much booty in the field, as it is the cuſtom of the Mamelukes to carry the

moſt of their fortunes with them when they march out to war.

As this battle was fought in ſight of Cairo, the magiſtrates and principal inhabitants ſent deputations to Bonaparte, and he obtained poſſeſſion of the city without further oppoſition. His army croſſed the river in boats, and entered Cairo in triumph on the 22d of July. The General immediately divided it into three parts. One he ſent off, under the command of Deſaix, in purſuit of Murad Bey; another he left at Cairo; and with a third, himſelf marched in purſuit of Ibrahim Bey, who, with a rich caravan, had taken his flight towards Syria; but with too much ſpeed to be overtaken. Bonaparte, therefore, returned to Cairo, where he preſided at the ceremonies which take place annually at the overflowing of the Nile, and arranged the adminiſtration of the Lower Egypt. He ſent garriſons to Damietta and Manſoura, and appointed Lazarettoes at Alexandria and Damietta, to oblige every ſhip, coming from any ſuſpected place, to perform quarantine. And, as the plague had broke out upon the arrival of the French, he took every precaution to avert that dreadful ſcourge. He erected work-ſhops at Giza for the different purpoſes of the army, and erected a mint for coining money.

But, while Bonaparte was carrying all before him in the interior of Egypt, the fleet that brought him thither added another trophy to the Britiſh flag. As ſoon as the Cabinet of St James's were informed of the preparations making at Toulon, they ſent a ſquadron, under the command of Admiral Nelſon, to watch their motions. When he arrived off Toulon, and found that the French fleet had ſailed, he followed

lowed them up the Mediterranean. He came to Malta two days after Bonaparte had ſailed from it; and, judging that the French had directed their courſe toward Alexandria, he followed them. But, happening to ſail along the ſouth of the Mediterranean, near the coaſt of Africa, while the French had ſteered northward, he miſſed them, and arrived at Alexandria before them. Having waited two days before the port, which the Turks would not permit them to enter, he began to conjecture that the enemy's fleet had taken another courſe, and went in ſearch of them. He had ſcarcely got out of ſight, when the French appeared in view, and began to land their troops, as mentioned above. Bonaparte, being informed by the French Conſul at Alexandria, that the Britiſh had been there, cauſed his fleet to be ranged in order of battle, in caſe of their return. They did return at length, after traverſing the Mediterranean a whole month, in queſt of him. What was the motive that prevailed with Admiral Brueys to continue in the road of Aboukir ſo long, when he might have taken refuge at Malta, or at Corfu, is uncertain. But it is probable he thought himſelf as ſecure where he was, as he would have been had he met Admiral Nelſon in the open ſea.

After leaving Alexandria, in the end of June, the Britiſh Admiral had ſailed back to Sicily. From thence he ſailed towards the Morea. There he received information that the French had paſſed Candia thirty-three days before. This determined him to ſteer a direct courſe for Alexandria, though with little hope of finding the enemy. When he looked into the harbour of Alexandria, and ſaw it full of French veſſels, but no ſhip of war among them, his diſappointment

diſappointment was great. But at that inſtant the French ſquadron was ſeen from the maſt head, a few leagues eaſtward, in the bay of Aboukir. Immediately he made ſail towards them, and found them at ſingle anchor, with ſprings on their cables, extending in a line from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, the Admiral's ſhip forming an obtuſe angle in the centre. To approach them, it was neceſſary to ſail round an iſland, and a reef that ſtretches out from it. The wind was perfectly fair; but in rounding the reef, the Culloden, the leading ſhip, commanded by the gallant Captain Trowbridge, ran aground, and could not be got into action. Three others of the ſhips had fallen ſeveral leagues aſtern, ſo that the laſt of them came not up till two hours after the action began. Thus the Admiral found himſelf, with ten ſhips only, to engage thirteen of the enemy, ſeveral of which were of force ſuperior to any of his; beſides, they had four large frigates, and he had none. The iſland alſo, which was fortified with two mortars, and ſeveral great guns, was to be paſſed within ſhot.

All this did not diſcourage the brave Nelſon. He determined on an immediate attack, which commenced about ſix o'clock in the evening: By one of theſe bold and dextrous manœvres, which diſtinguiſh Britiſh naval officers, he got one half of his ſquadron between the enemy's fleet and the ſhore; the reſt came up on the other ſide; and, placing the French ſhips between two fires, he began the deſperate attack. Having no idea of the Britiſh ſhips getting between them and the land, the enemy were not prepared on that ſide; ſo that the Zealous fired three broadſides at their headmoſt ſhip, before a ſhot was returned; and in five minutes ſhe was completely

ly beaten. Six of their ſhips were taken poſſeſſion of that night. About nine o'clock the French Admiral was killed, being cut in two by a ball; and, an hour after, his ſhip L'Oriens, of 120 guns, blew up, being ſet on fire by the wadding of the Britiſh guns. Next morning early, the battle recommenced, and other ſhips were taken or deſtroyed. Nor did the action terminate till the forenoon of the third day, when two line-of-battle ſhips, and two frigates, that had ſuffered little in the engagement, eſcaped. They were purſued by the Zealous; but as none of our ſhips were in a condition to ſecond her, the Admiral was obliged to call her back. Theſe four French veſſels got into Malta, with an Engliſh ſhip, which they fell in with, and captured, by the way. The Timoleon, of 74 guns, ſhared the ſame fate with L'Orient; one frigate was burnt, and another ſunk; all the reſt of the enemy's ſquadron, amounting to nine ſhips of the line, were taken. Admiral Nelſon alſo took poſſeſſion of the iſland above mentioned, and brought off the two mortars and the braſs guns that were upon it.

Though the port of Alexandria was crowded with tranſports, the Britiſh Admiral did not think it prudent to attack them, as they were protected by the batteries on the ſhore. But, having repaired ſuch of his prizes as could admit of it, and burnt ſuch as could not, he left a ſquadron under Commodore Hood, to block up the port, and ſailed himſelf for Europe. By this notable victory, and the conſequent blockade of their tranſports, the French army was completely inſulated, their communication with Roſetta, and other places by ſea, was cut off, and the ſupply of Alexandria was impeded. To remedy this,

this, Bonaparte eſtabliſhed a caravan between that place and Roſetta. When this was found inſufficient, he cauſed the canal to be cleared, which leads from Rhamania to Alexandria, through a deſart of forty miles; by which this latter city was better ſupplied both with proviſions and water; and, at the ſame time, he had a readier conveyance for his military ſtores at Giza, which was the general depoſit.

And now, as if he had been firmly eſtabliſhed in Egypt, Bonaparte ſet himſelf to regulate its internal government. He formed a national academy, which aſſembled every five days, and whoſe members, being the men of ſcience whom he had brought along with him, employed themſelves in promoting and improving ſuch mechanical arts, as were moſt uſeful according to the ſtate of the country. He aſſembled the Scheiks from the different provinces, to conſult with them about certain objects of political œconomy. He conſtructed forts in different places, to defend himſelf from the Turks and Arabs; and he drew plans for the better defence of the city of Cairo, and the port of Alexandria.

The anniverſary feſtival of the inſtitution of the French Republic, falling about this time, (the 10th of Auguſt), it was celebrated at Cairo with great pomp and ſolemnity. All thoſe amuſements which the Pariſians were accuſtomed to in the Champ de Mars, were exhibited to the aſtoniſhed Egyptians, except the aſcent of balloons, the machinery of which was now in Admiral Nelſon's hands. By theſe means, Bonaparte ſought to conciliate the affections of his new ſubjects, which ſeemed to be confirmed to him by his recent victories; for, about this time, the detachment on the coaſt had defeated an army

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ſent againſt them by Ibrahim, from the confines of Syria; and Deſaix had put to flight the troops of Murad Bey, in Upper Egypt.

But ſtill there was no cordial friendſhip between him and them. He had told them, that his invaſion of Egypt and expulſion of the Beys was in favours of the Turkiſh Emperor, and with his conſent. But now the news reached Cairo, that the Emperor was ſo little pleaſed with this new ſpecies of alliance, that he had declared war againſt the invaders. The faithful Muſſulmans, therefore, thought themſelves bound to treat the French as enemies, and ſo to execute, as far as was in their power, the will of their Sovereign. They aſſembled in groups, on the morning of the 21ſt of October, and gave ſigns of an approaching inſurrection. General Dupuis, the French commander at Cairo, who went among them to know the cauſe of their aſſembling, was maſſacred, and ſeveral ſoldiers that were with him. Every inſulated Frenchman fell a victim to the fury of the inſurgents, who poured in from every quarter. The houſe of General Caffarelli was beſieged and taken, and the philoſophical and mechanical inſtruments, which had been lodged there, were deſtroyed.

The French, recovering from their ſurpriſe, immediately flew to arms, and made a ſtrong and effectual reſiſtance to the torrent. The cannon were pointed in every direction. The Turks and Arabs were ſoon diſperſed, and obliged to take refuge in their moſques. There they thought themſelves in perfect ſafety; becauſe Bonaparte, pretending great reſpect for their religion, had never permitted a Frenchman to enter theſe holy places. But, on ſuch an occaſion as this, he could not ſtand upon ceremonies.

He firſt ſummoned them to ſurrender their leaders; but when this was refuſed, the French ſoldiery entered the moſques, and every perſon whom they found there was put to the ſword.

This revolt, fatal to the Turks and Arabs, who were the principal inſurgents, ſerved to confirm the power of Bonaparte. The native Egyptians took no part, and the Greeks rather ſided with the French, conſidering them as their deliverers from Turkiſh bondage. Accordingly, the General, having taken meaſures to ſecure the continuance of tranquillity, began to make preparations for extending his conqueſts; or, if the reader chuſes rather to have it in his own words, "for the further deliverance and regene-"ration of the eaſtern world." Thus engaged, it will be proper to leave him for a time, and return to Europe.

A new revolution took place in Holland, in the beginning of this year. The French Directory had of late been too much occupied with forming Republics beyond the Alps, to pay much attention to the Dutch. But a ſuſpicion had for ſome time prevailed, that a number of the members of the Batavian Convention wiſhed for the reſtoration of the old government. The defeat of the Dutch fleet by Lord Duncan was imputed to treachery in ſome of the reigning party, and many of the people were diſpoſed for a change. In theſe circumſtances, the French Directory iſſued their mandate for a revolution. The execution of it was committed to Charles La Croix, a man fit for any commiſſion that neither wiſdom nor integrity would acknowledge. Upon his arrival, he ſoon blew up into a flame thoſe ſparks of diſcontent which he found among the people. He concerted

certed his plan with the Dutch General Daendels, and it was put in execution on the 22d of January. During the preceding night, the posts were doubled, the Dutch garrison put under arms, and the public places filled with troops. Certain deputies received notice to meet early in the morning, who proceeded to the hall of the Assembly, escorted by the troops. Two officers attended in the antichamber, who suffered such only to pass who were not in the list of exclusion. They whose names were in that list were consigned to the care of the soldiery, in a separate apartment. The six members of the committee for foreign affairs had been previously arrested.

The assembly thus purged, consisted of about sixty members. They formed themselves into a secret committee, pronounced the final exclusion of the proscribed deputies, to the number of twenty-two. These were at first permitted to retire to their own houses, but were afterwards imprisoned. This act of exclusion was not agreed to by all the members; they who dissented withdrew from the Assembly. After taking such steps as they thought previously necessary, the primary assemblies were convoked, and a constitution was offered to them, formed on the model of that of France. The people, wearied out with continual agitations, accepted it as the best remedy against further convulsions. And Holland sunk into a dependent province, under the protection of La Croix.

No later than the 11th of June, that ill-fated country underwent another revolution. A grand supper was then given, in a tavern at the Hague, where most of the officers of the garrison were present, with General Daendels at their head. A paper

was handed about for ſignature, the purport of which was, that the Legiſlative Aſſembly ſhould leave their poſt. Several arreſts took place that ſame night; and, on the next day, General Daendels, at the head of a body of infantry, ſeized one of the directors, and ſent him to priſon; while two more accepted their diſmiſſion. A great number of the legiſlative body were arreſted, and a new executive power was created. Theſe proceedings were diſapproved by La Croix, but they were confirmed at Paris, and he was recalled.

The French Directory had more revolutions to accompliſh this year, and more new conſtitutions to form, beſides that for Holland. A treaty had been drawn up at Paris, between France and the Ciſalpine Republic; it was ſigned by the miniſter of that republic, and ratified in due form in Paris, and then ſent to Milan, for the conſideration of the Ciſalpine Legiſlature. By it the Ciſalpines were bound to take part in all the wars of France, when required by the Directory; to keep in their territories an army of 25,000 French troops, and to pay ten millions yearly for their maintenance; with other articles not leſs oppreſſive. Though this treaty was at laſt accepted by the Ciſalpine Directory and Legiſlature, it was with manifeſt reluctance, and as a matter of neceſſity. The oppoſition made to it was not to be forgiven. Thoſe members who had voted againſt it were excluded from the legiſlative bodies. And the conſtitution-maker of the French Directory, Reveilliere Lepaux, was ſet to work, to frame a new conſtitution for the Ciſalpines. It was entruſted to Froüvé, then ambaſſador at Milan, who, after various manœuvres, by the aſſiſtance of General Brune, who had come thither after

after the conqueſt of Rome, prevailed to have it accepted by nearly a fourth part of the two Councils, and impoſed upon the people.

The new Republic of Rome, too, was thought already to ſtand in need of regeneration. The French commiſſaries, finding the affairs of that commonwealth in diſorder, the laws unexecuted, the conſtitution violated, and the finances deſtroyed, firſt publiſhed a proclamation, threatening puniſhment to all Conſuls, Queſtors, Ediles, and others, the authors of thoſe diſorders. They then ſent a letter to the Roman Conſuls, accuſing them of ſpreading reports concerning the expedition to Egypt, favourable to the Engliſh, and againſt the French. Then General M'Donald, by a proclamation, dated the 17th of September, declared a change of the Conſulate to be neceſſary, and exhorted the people to yield obedience to the authorities to be appointed; concluding with theſe words: "The Great Nation wills it, its will ſhall "be executed." It was executed accordingly; five new Conſuls were named by the French General, and ſuch other changes took place as he thought proper; ſo that the Roman people found themſelves in poſſeſſion of leſs liberty than they had enjoyed under the moſt deſpotic of their former governors.

The negotiations between France and America, that had been carrying on at Paris, for adjuſting the differences between the two Republics, were broken off about the beginning of this year. The Preſident of the American States publiſhed the correſpondence, and even the converſation, that had taken place on this occaſion. By which means a ſcene of political infamy was diſcloſed, not to be matched in the hiſtory of mankind. It there appears, that the Directory had

had employed ſecret agents to tamper with the American envoys, in order to procure from the States, as the price of being allowed to treat, not only a loan of two millions Sterling to the French Republic, but likewiſe a private *douceur*, for the pockets of the Directors, of no leſs a ſum than fifty thouſand pounds. Upon this two of the ambaſſadors returned indignant to America, without ever having obtained an audience of the Directory. A third, who was more favourable to French politics, was requeſted to continue. In conſequence of this, the Congreſs paſſed a law for breaking off all commercial intercourſe with France and her dependencies; and America made preparations for her own defence.

An attempt at negotiation, which was made by Portugal in the month of October, was alſo fruſtrated by the exorbitant demands of the French, with which the Portugueſe ambaſſador could not comply. But the actual commencement of hoſtilities againſt Portugal had hitherto been prevented, through the interference of Spain, whoſe friendſhip was of more value to France, than all the advantage ſhe could draw from a war with Portugal.

The proceedings of the French Legiſlature, during this year, were too trifling to be inſiſted on. In the month of April the new third was elected; but the Directory took care that none ſhould be admitted into the Aſſemblies, whoſe views did not tally with their own. On the 2d of May they ſent a meſſage to the Council of Five Hundred, in which they affirmed that a conſpiracy exiſted, to make the primary and electoral aſſemblies the nurſeries of future plots, and expreſſed their hope, that the Council would not permit men to ſit in the legiſlature, who were loaded with

with every crime, but would reprobate thoſe choices which were inconſiſtent with the dignity of the Republic, and with their own independence. An obſequious committee brought in their report upon this meſſage on the 7th; the reſult of which was the diſannulling of all thoſe elections which had fallen upon perſons diſagreeable to the Directory. This violation of the conſtitution, and of the rights of election, was diſapproved by many; but they were obliged to ſubmit. Fielhard was choſen to ſucceed Neufchateau, who was deſtined to vacate his ſeat in the Directory.

The principal thing that engaged the attention of Europe about this time, was the Congreſs at Radſtadt, to whom the pacification of the empire had been left. It conſiſted of miniſters from the different ſtates concerned, to the number of 173. On the part of France the negotiation was managed by Fielhard and Bonnier. They began by inſiſting, as the baſis of the treaty of peace, that the Silure ſhould be the boundary between France and the empire. To this the Emperor, it was ſaid, had agreed, in a ſecret article of the treaty of Campo Formio, and the King of Pruſſia did not oppoſe it; but the other powers were not prepared immediately to give their conſent. A territory of 1100 ſquare miles would thus be taken from the empire, and annexed to France, containing three millions of inhabitants. From that territory, ſince the beginning of the war, France had drawn eighty millions of money, and, by its ſituation and fertility, it was one of the firſt provinces in Europe. Yet after long contending, the Deputation, on the 12th of March, conſented to give it up, upon condition of the French withdrawing their troops from the

the right ſide of the river, and forming no other pretenſions upon the empire.

The next object of diſcuſſion was the manner in which thoſe ſtates were to be indemnified, who were moſt injured by the ceſſion. This, the French propoſed, ſhould be done, by the ſeculariſation of the eccleſiaſtical eſtates in the reſt of Germany. To this alſo the Deputation at laſt agreed, but deſired to be informed what was the amount of the indemnities wanted, and what further pretenſions the French had to ſtate. To this they received an anſwer, in a note from the French miniſters, on the 13th of May, in which they demanded, that the navigation of the Rhine ſhould be common to both nations,—that all tolls ſhould be aboliſhed,—that the cuſtom-dues on both ſides ſhould be equaliſed,—that all the iſlands in the river ſhould belong to France,—that not only thoſe rivers that fall into the Rhine, but all the great rivers of Germany, and particularly the Danube, ſhould be freely navigated by both nations,—that the fortreſs of Ehrenbreitſtein, which the French had hitherto kept cloſely beſieged, ſhould be demoliſhed, and thoſe of Kehl and Capal ceded to France. They alſo demanded, that the debts incurred by the ceded countries on the left of the Rhine ſhould be transferred to thoſe which ſhould be given in exchange for them on the right; and that the French laws concerning emigrants ſhould be extended to the ceded countries.

Theſe demands were ſo manifeſtly extravagant, that moſt of the deputies heſitated about complying with them. The Imperial Miniſter, who had hitherto favoured the pretenſions of France, now ſhewed a determined reſiſtance to her claims. Even the Pruſ-

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ſian miniſters found themſelves obliged to proteſt againſt them. The French negotiators were now inſtructed to lower their demands a little; and after various bickerings between them and the Deputation of the Empire, which continued till the end of the year, and are too tedious to be here particularly related, the terms propoſed by the French were agreed to, and peace was expected to enſue, when matters took a different turn, in conſequence of a new ſeries of propoſitions and remonſtrances by the French miniſters, relative to the march of Ruſſian troops. But theſe will fall to be noticed with more propriety afterwards.

Except in quelling the rebellion in Ireland, the Britiſh land-forces had little to do this compaign. But a number of them were employed in one expedition, which, though they completely ſucceeded in accompliſhing the deſign upon which they were ſent, had a diſaſtrous iſſue with regard to themſelves. On the 14th of May, a ſmall ſquadron, under the command of Captain Home Popham, ſailed from England, having on board a detachment of troops, commanded by Major-General Coote, for the purpoſe of deſtroying the baſon, gates, and ſluices of the Bruges Canal, and thereby putting a ſtop to the navigation between Holland, Flanders, and France. They arrived at Oſtend on the 18th, and at five o'clock in the evening the troops were landed. They immediately ſet to work, and the ſluice, gates, and baſon, were ſo completely deſtroyed, that the canal was ſoon dry. This was accompliſhed, and the troops were ready to re-embark by twelve o'clock. But this was found impracticable, by reaſon of a tremendous ſurf, raiſed by a ſtrong north-wind, that

had riſen ſoon after they landed. They, therefore, took the ſtrongeſt poſition on the ſand-hills. But about four in the morning they were attacked on all ſides by ſeveral thouſands of the enemy's troops. In attempting to defend themſelves, they had between fifty and ſixty men killed and wounded; among the laſt was General Coote himſelf. The reſt, finding themſelves completely ſurrounded, and further reſiſtance vain, ſurrendered, and became priſoners, to the number of 1134. At the time when the troops began to land, the enemy's batteries opened on the Britiſh ſhips, and the fire was returned with proper ſpirit. Two bomb-veſſels which were with them opened their mortars, and threw their ſhells into the town, which was ſeveral times on fire, and ſundry veſſels which were in the baſon were burnt.

Though peace had ſo lately been concluded on the continent, this year was not far advanced, when the ſtorm of war again began to gather. As early as the 5th of May, the Emperor of Ruſſia, provoked by a notification given by the French Directory, that "if "any ſhip, of whatever nation, bearing Engliſh com-"modities, ſhould be ſuffered to paſs the Sound, it "ſhould be conſidered as a formal declaration of war "againſt the French nation," iſſued a proclamation, declaring his reſolution to protect the freedom of trade, both by ſea and land; and intimating that, for protecting it againſt the manifeſt oppreſſion of the Directory, he had ſent twenty-two ſhips of the line, and two hundred and fifty gallies, to the Sound. Early in the ſummer, he began to increaſe his troops, and ſent a ſquadron of ſhips to the coaſt of Holland, to co-operate with thoſe of Britain.

Though Bonaparte pretended that his expedition into

into Egypt was undertaken with the conſent of the Sublime Porte, nothing could be more untrue. The account of his landing was received at Conſtantinople with the utmoſt ſurpriſe. A declaration of war againſt France was iſſued on the 14th of September. The news of Admiral Nelſon's victory was received with the utmoſt ſatisfaction. The Grand Seignior immediately ſent to the Admiral a ſuperb diamond aigrette, with a pelice of ſable fur of the firſt quality. He alſo ſent a purſe of 2000 zequins, to be diſtributed among the wounded ſeamen in the Britiſh fleet; and a conſiderable force was ſent to Egypt, with a view to ſtop the progreſs of the invaders.

It had only been from neceſſity that the Emperor had entered into the treaty of Campo Formio, and from ſuch a treaty no permanent peace could be expected. He ſaw the extravagance of their demands in the congreſs at Radſtadt, and that they conſtantly roſe in theſe demands upon every conceſſion that was made them. He therefore ſaw it neceſſary to put himſelf again in a poſture of defence. An event happened at Vienna, that probably haſtened the rupture. On the 13th of April 1796, the people of Vienna, in a maſs, had voluntarily arrayed themſelves for the defence of the city, againſt the French army, who were ſuppoſed to be in full march towards it. The anniverſary of that day was appointed to be celebrated, with ceremonies of civil and religious pomp. On the evening of this day, while the people were employed in this manner, General Bernadotte, the French ambaſſador, cauſed the tricoloured flag to be diſplayed for the firſt time, from the balcony of his hotel. This the populace conſidered as an egregious inſult. An officer of the police wait-

ed on the ambaſſador, deſiring him to order the flag to be removed; but he, laying his hand upon his ſword, haughtily anſwered, that it was hoiſted by the orders of the Directory, and he would defend it to the laſt extremity. The populace, in the mean time, collected in crowds about the houſe; and when their demands of removing the flag were not complied with, they broke the windows, burſt open the gate, and demoliſhed every thing that they found on the ground-floor. They threatened to ſacrifice the ambaſſador, and all his ſuit, to their vengeance. Laying hold on two of his carriages, they dragged them to different public places, and broke them to pieces. Bernadotte diſpatched his firſt ſecretary with a letter to the Emperor, demanding, as the conditions of his ſtay in Vienna, *1ſt*, The diſmiſſal of the miniſter Thugut. *2dly*, The immediate puniſhment of the chief of the police, and the commander of the military. *3dly*, The eſtabliſhment of a privileged quarter for the French miſſion and its compatriots. And, *4thly*, The reparation of the flag and flag-ſtaff, with the picture of the French arms, at the Emperor's own expence. Theſe demands being refuſed, as might be expected, he quitted Vienna, threatening vengeance for the outrage upon the dignity of the *Great Nation*.

The entry of Auſtrian troops into the country of the Griſons, which had formerly been in alliance with the Swiſs, but was no part of the Helvetic Republic, was conſidered as an indication of approaching hoſtilities; though the Emperor declared, by a proclamation, dated the 8th of October, that his ſole deſign was the preſervation of that republic, and its conſtitution, according to exiſting treaties. The

French

French had assembled some forces in the Rheinthal, with views of a different kind; but finding themselves prevented by the Austrians, they proceeded no further, but took post on the frontiers.

Soon after this, General Mack, who had the command of a Neapolitan army, which had been collecting on the frontiers of the Roman republic, summoned the French garrisons in those parts to evacuate their places. Championet, who commanded in that new republic, answered, that such a summons was inconsistent with the rights of nations, while peace continued between France and the Court of Naples. To this General Mack replied, in a letter dated the 24th of November, that the Neapolitan army had passed the frontiers the preceding day, with the King at their head, to take possession of the Roman territory, which had been revolutionized and usurped by France, since the treaty of Campo Formio; and that their refusing to evacuate it would be considered as a declaration of war.

The army of Naples was said to consist of 76,000 men, while all the French troops in Rome and its territory did not amount to more than 10,000. Consequently the King met with little opposition. He entered Rome on the 29th of November, while the combined fleets of England and Naples took possession of the port of Leghorn. The French troops retreated towards Civita Castellana, leaving a garrison in the castle of St Angelo, which were summoned by General Mack, but declared their resolution to defend it to the last extremity.

When the news of the march of the Neapolitan troops reached Paris, war was immediately declared, not only against the King of Naples, but likewise against

gainſt the King of Sardinia, though it is not yet known what offence he had given. This monarch had already felt himſelf unequal to a conteſt with the mighty Republic. They already had poſſeſſion of the citadel of Turin, his capital; and, by a deed ſigned in the month of December, he ſurrendered the whole country of Piedmont into their hands. They were not backward to take poſſeſſion. A proviſional government was immediately organized; the Piedmonteſe troops adopted the French ſtandard, and became a component part of the Army of Italy.

During the time that Rome was in the poſſeſſion of the King of Naples, ſome ſkirmiſhes took place between detachments of his army and the French, to the diſadvantage of the former. It was not long till ſuch reinforcements arrived, as enabled the latter to act again upon the offenſive. The Neapolitans were attacked at all points, and completely routed; after loſing, in the various rencounters that took place, 12,000 priſoners, 100 pieces of cannon, and 20 pair of colours. This General Mack imputed to the puſillanimity of the Neapolitan ſoldiers, and the treachery of their officers, more than to the proweſs of the enemy. The King found himſelf obliged to evacuate Rome, of which the French again took poſſeſſion, and then directed their march towards Naples. On the laſt day of the year, General Mack wrote a letter from Capua, propoſing an armiſtice, on account of the ſeverity of the weather, and the badneſs of the roads. Championet made anſwer, that as his army had hitherto overcome the difficulties both of the way and the weather, he did not mean to halt till he made his entry into Naples.

The French had not yet finiſhed their work of horror

horror in Switzerland. The treaty which the ſmall united cantons had entered into with Schawenbourg, the canton of Underwalden had refuſed to confirm. The French General aſſembled his troops, to enforce the execution; and, on the 8th of September, he made an attack upon the troops of the canton. Though theſe amounted only to 1600, they fought with true Swiſs bravery, and repelled the aſſailants. Next day the attack was renewed; the inhabitants of Underwalden were joined by ſome hundreds of volunteers from the neighbouring cantons, and ſome peaſants from the mountains. The battle was fought at Stanzſtead, on the border of the lake of Lucerne, and a conflict ſo terrible is ſcarcely recorded in hiſtory. French bayonets proved but feeble weapons, againſt the maſſy clubs of the mountaineers. The very artillery was ſilenced for a time, by ſhowers of ſtones and ſplinters of rocks. Even women and children ruſhed undaunted on the invaders, and, when diſarmed, clung about them to impede their progreſs. At length, however, French numbers prevailed, and dreadful was the carnage. Old men, women, and children, were put to the ſword without mercy. The town of Stantz, the capital of the canton, was laid in aſhes; as were almoſt all the houſes, barns, churches, and chapels through the whole canton; and the orphan children of the murdered inhabitants were left without ſhelter, without protection, and without proviſion, unleſs what was ſupplied by the charity of their neighbours.

In the beginning of October, a violent inſurrection broke out in the Belgic provinces, lately become departments of France. For a long time, this people had ſeen, and felt with indignation, the effects of their

their fraternization. But that which was made the occaſion of their revolt, was a law which had lately paſſed in Paris, for raiſing 200,000 men, to oppoſe the new coalition, which the Directory ſaw forming againſt them. Though this requiſition only affected the Brabanters in common with the reſt of France, they were not diſpoſed quietly to ſubmit to it. The inſurrection broke out in the country round Mechlin, and along the canal leading from Antwerp to Bruſſels. In their attempt upon Mechlin, the inſurgents were repulſed with loſs; and they who were taken were, in the tender mercies of French republicans, ſhot in the public ſquare. In revenge for this, they, for ſome time, ſhot every Frenchman that fell into their hands. The national guards from Bruſſels, and detachments from the garriſons of the adjacent towns, marched againſt them, and ſome obſtinate and bloody engagements took place. Nevertheleſs, the revolt continued to ſpread wider. The countries round Halle and Enghien took part in it. Oudenarde, and the country between Ath and Tournay, joined it. The countries about Liege and in the Ardeunes, as far as Luxembourg, were likewiſe in a ſtate of inſurrection.

Alarmed at this dangerous appearance, the Government ordered detachments to march from the Rhine, and aſſembled a regular army, the command of which was given to Generals Colland and Moulins. Againſt regular forces ſo numerous, the inſurgents could make no effectual reſiſtance; but they fought with courage and obſtinacy. After various defeats, they collected themſelves in a body of ſix or ſeven thouſand, and took poſſeſſion of Dieſt. Being here ſurrounded by the troops of the Directory, they made their

their eſcape through a moraſs, that was thought impaſſable, and many of them were drowned. Another general engagement took place on the banks of the river Gheete, in which they ſuffered great loſs. After this, they were every where deſtroyed or diſperſed by the regular troops. The inſurrection continued only about ſix weeks; but it was ſome time before perfect tranquillity was reſtored.

Hitherto Britain had kept poſſeſſion of a few places in St Domingo. But having loſt a great number of men by the unhealthineſs of the climate, and finding all hopes of reducing the whole iſland to be viſionary, it was now reſolved to evacuate it. General Maitland, who then commanded the Britiſh forces there, ſent a flag of truce to Touſſaint l'Ouverture, the black General, acquainting him with his deſign, and leaving it to his option, either to obtain poſſeſſion of the places that were to be evacuated in a ſtate of perfect order, upon condition of his engaging ſolemnly to guarantee the lives and properties of all who had taken part with Britain, and choſe to remain on the iſland; or to have theſe places left in ruins, which they would be if that condition was refuſed. Touſſaint, with more humanity than could have been expected had he been a native of France, agreed readily to the firſt of the two alternatives, and a treaty was concluded to that purpoſe between General Maitland and him. And, on the 7th, 8th, and 9th of May, the Britiſh forces were embarked, carrying with them all the Britiſh ſtores, the French braſs guns and mortars, and all ſuch of the inhabitants as wiſhed to go.

This treaty gave great offence to the Directory, and to Roucul, their commiſſioner in St Domingo.

A proclamation was publiſhed by the commiſſioner, which was contradicted by another which Touſſaint publiſhed. The Directory ſent Hedonville to take upon him the government of the colony; but he found ſo much oppoſition made to the execution of his orders by the black General, that he thought proper to leave the iſland, and return to France. In a proclamation, which he publiſhed on the 22d of October, immediately before he left the colony, he complained of the favour ſhewn to emigrants, who had ſerved under the Engliſh, and denounced a plan, which, he ſaid, had been concerted with the Engliſh miniſter, to render the colony independent. After his departure, Touſſaint ſent his aid-du-camp to Paris with a number of papers, in which he repels theſe charges, and recriminates upon his accuſer, as having brought the iſland into great danger by the raſhneſs of his counſels. Whether Touſſaint really intended to make himſelf independent or not, is not yet known; but, as the government of France had not leiſure to call him to account, he continued in quiet poſſeſſion of the iſland till the peace, and governed it with no ſmall degree of wiſdom, moderation, and humanity.

In the month of November, the iſland of Minorca was reduced by the Britiſh forces, without the loſs of a man. On the 7th of the month, a ſquadron under Commodore Duckworth arrived at that place, having on board a body of land-forces, commanded by the Honourable General Charles Stuart. The ſame day, about 11 o'clock, 800 men were landed in the Bay of Addaya, on the north ſide of the iſland; ſoon after which 2000 of the enemy's troops attempted to ſurround them, but were repulſed by the aſſiſtance of the covering ſhips. And by ſix o'clock the whole

whole army was on ſhore. They proceeded, by a forced march, to Mercadal, on the oppoſite ſide of the iſland, with a view to divide the enemy's force, and cut off the communication between the towns of Ciutadella and Mahon. There they learned that Mahon was nearly evacuated; and Colonel Paget was diſpatched with 300 men, to take poſſeſſion of the town. He ſummoned Fort Charles to ſurrender, and made priſoners of the lieutenant-governor of the iſland, a colonel of artillery, and 160 men. Underſtanding that the enemy were throwing up works, and entrenching themſelves in front of Ciutadella, which is the capital of the iſland, and ſtands near the weſt end of it, the General reſolved to force their poſition on the night of the 13th. But the Spaniards, obſerving the approach of the Britiſh in different columns, abandoned their half-conſtructed works, and retired within the walls of the town. On the 14th, the army advanced at day-break, to the inveſtment of the place. The town was ſummoned to ſurrender; but doubts ariſing among the Spaniards, whether the inveſting force was ſuperior to the garriſon, they heſitated. During the night, therefore, two batteries were erected, of three twelve-pounders, and three five and a half inch howitzers; for heavy artillery they had none. And in the morning the army was drawn up, in a line, partly real, and partly imaginary, fronting the enemy's batteries, and extending four miles in length. This formidable aſpect, together with the appearance of the Britiſh ſquadron at a diſtance, induced a renewal of the negotiation, and the town and the iſland were delivered up to his Majeſty's forces, with 3681 priſoners of war, and a long liſt of ordnance and ſtores.

After getting poſſeſſion of the iſland of Malta, the French ſoldiers, behaving towards the inhabitants with their uſual atrocity, provoked them to take arms againſt them; ſo that the republicans were obliged to ſhut themſelves up in the town of Valetta, and in the forts. Admiral Nelſon, (whom his Majeſty, on receiving the news of his victory, had created a Peer of Great Britain, by the ſtyle and title of Baron Nelſon of the Nile, and of Burnham-thorpe in the county of Norfolk), ſent Captain Ball, with three ſail of the line, a frigate and fire-ſhip, to block up the town and harbour, in which were two ſhips of the line and three frigates ready for ſea. On the 28th of October, Captain Ball took poſſeſſion of the iſland of Goza, and the caſtle which is upon it, which ſurrendered by capitulation. The men, in number [illegible] became priſoners, and a great quantity of cannon and ſtores were taken.

In the latter end of October, the Britiſh ſettlers in the Bay of Honduras were attacked by a Spaniſh flotilla, conſiſting of thirty-one veſſels of different ſizes, having on board 500 ſeamen, and 2000 land-forces. Oppoſed to theſe, there were only the Merlin frigate of 32 guns; two ſchooners, with ſix four-pounders and twenty-five men each; three ſloops, with one gun and twenty-five men each; and ſeven gun-flats, with one nine-pounder and ſixteen men each. Yet the enemy was repulſed with conſiderable loſs. The gun-boats were manned by the ſettlers themſelves, and their negro-ſlaves, who made wonderful exertions. Colonel Barrow, with the few men whom he commanded, co-operated on ſhore. On the ſide of the Britiſh, there was not one man killed. The enemy's loſs could not be aſcertained; but, from

from the number of men on board, and the precipitate manner in which they managed their retreat, it was conjectured that it muſt have been conſiderable.

In the naval department nothing very remarkable took place this year, beſides what has already been narrated. In general, it may be mentioned, that in the courſe of the year, excluſive of the ſhips taken and deſtroyed by Lord Nelſon at Aboukir, and by Sir John Warren off the coaſt of Ireland, upwards of 180 armed veſſels were taken by his Majeſty's cruizers in different parts of the world; two of which were ſhips of the line, and ſeven were frigates; beſides a great many unarmed tranſports, and other trading veſſels, belonging to the different powers with whom we were at war.

Upon the whole, though Britain was deſerted by all her allies, and left to ſtruggle alone againſt the enormous power of France, aſſiſted by all the efforts that Spain and Holland could make in her favours; and though his Majeſty's counſels were perplexed, and his forces harraſſed by a formidable rebellion in the ſiſter-kingdom, yet our ſuperiority at ſea was never more conſpicuous, nor did ever Britiſh valour ſhine with more brilliance. The ſpeedy reduction of the Iriſh rebellion, the total defeat of all the ſchemes of invaſion, which the French had deviſed, and above all, the ſplendid victory of Aboukir, made it evident that Britain was not exhauſted by the conteſt, and that France was not invincible. By theſe means were other nations encouraged to reſume their arms, and make another effort for ſetting bounds to the encroachments of thoſe aſpiring republicans, as will be ſeen in the following chapters.

CHAP.

CHAP. XV.

Parliamentary Proceedings.—Debate on the Addreſs.—Thanks to Naval Commanders.—Mr Tierney's Motion.—Farther Suſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act.—Meſſage from his Majeſty relative to an Union with Ireland—Propoſitions on that ſubject.—Debate on them in the Houſe of Commons—In the Houſe of Peers.—Joint Addreſs of both Houſes.—State of Ireland.—Progreſs of the War in the Kingdom of Naples.—People riſe againſt the French.—Armiſtice concluded.—Inſurrection of the Lazzaroni.—Deſertion of the Neapolitan Army.—Naples taken by the French.—Neapolitan Republic.—Championet impriſoned.—The Kingdom of Naples recovered.—The Congreſs of Radſtadt.—Murder of the French Ambaſſadors.—The French paſs the Rhine—make themſelves maſters of the Griſons.—Attack upon Fieldkirch.—Battle of Oſtrach.—Battle of Stokach.—Jourdan repaſſes the Rhine.—Schaffhauſen taken by the Auſtrians.—Commencement of the Campaign in Italy.—Battle of Alagnan.—Retreat of the French.—Arrival of Suwarrow, who takes the command of the Allied Army.—Breſcia taken.—Paſſage of the Adda.—Battle of Brivio.—Suwarrow enters Milan—continues to purſue the French Army.

THE Britiſh Parliament was convened on the 20th of November 1798. His Majeſty, in his ſpeech,

ſpeech, recapitulated thoſe important events which had taken place during the receſs. He mentioned Lord Nelſon's victory as an event which might lead to the general deliverance of Europe. He ſpake of the ſpirited conduct of the Emperor of Ruſſia, and the vigour of the Ottoman Porte, as examples which might be followed by other ſtates. He took notice of the enemy's having been deterred by our preparations, and by the zeal of all ranks of people, from attempting to invade our coaſt. He ſpoke of the repreſſion of the rebellion in Ireland, and the defeat of thoſe forces which the French had ſent to the aſſiſtance of the rebels. And from theſe events concluded, that the ſecurity and happineſs of the Britiſh nation depended, under Providence, on its own conſtancy, energy, and virtue.

Though the ſeceding members did not yet return to their ſeats, there wanted not ſpeakers, in both Houſes, on the ſide of Oppoſition. In the debate on the addreſs, they ſaid much about the neceſſity of peace, of the little uſe that was made of our victories, becauſe they were not improved as means of reſtoring tranquillity to Europe, of the monſtroſity of an alliance between the Ruſſians and Turks, and of the little reaſon we had to expect ſucceſs in continuing the war. To this it was anſwered, that the iſſue of the negotiation at Liſle ſhewed what might be expected from any ſimilar attempt; that it became not Britain to ſue for peace to ſuch an enemy, at the moment when our victories had encouraged the powers of the continent to embrace a line of conduct more ſuitable to their intereſts. In this caſe, it was her duty to animate their efforts, and contribute to their deliverance.

deliverance. The addreſs, however, was carried unanimouſly in both Houſes.

On the 21ſt, in conſequence of a motion made by Mr Dundas, the thanks of the Houſe of Commons were voted to Lord Nelſon, and the ſeveral captains, commanders, and officers of his fleet, for the memorable victory of the 1ſt of Auguſt. And a monument in St Paul's was voted to Captain Weſtcot, who fell on that day. On a ſimilar motion by the ſame gentleman, the thanks of the Houſe were voted to Sir John Borlaſe Warren, his captains, officers, &c. for the total defeat of the French armament deſtined for the coaſt of Ireland, on the 12th of October. A meſſage was alſo brought from his Majeſty, recommending to the Houſe to take ſuch meaſures as might be neceſſary to enable his Majeſty to ſettle the ſum of L. 2000 per annum, upon Lord Nelſon and his two next male heirs, during their reſpective lives. And the deſign of this meſſage was fulfilled, as ſoon as form would permit. Similar votes paſſed the ſame day in the other Houſe.

On the 26th, 120,000 ſeamen, including 10,000 marines, were voted for the ſervice of the year 1799. The army-eſtimates were taken into conſideration on the 30th, and the neceſſary reſolutions paſſed in the Committee on that head.

On the 11th of December, Mr Tierney moved, "That it is the duty of his Majeſty's miniſters to adviſe him not to enter into any alliance with foreign "powers, that may hinder his Majeſty from negotiating a peace with France, whenever ſhe may be "diſpoſed to enter upon a fair and equitable negotiation." In ſupport of this motion it was argued, That as France, when ſhe had no ſettled form of government,

government, and was embroiled by factions and civil war, had baffled all the powers of Europe combined againſt her; there could be no hopes that, in her preſent circumſtances, any new confederacy could produce any material effect. It was anſwered, That ſuch a motion could be uſeful only to the enemy, who dreaded nothing ſo much as a general confederacy of the powers of Europe, with Britain at their head; that Government had never done any thing to prevent peace being concluded at Liſle or at Paris; that they were ſtill ready to receive or to offer terms of peace, but did not wiſh to be bound up from uſing the means that were moſt likely for ultimately obtaining that end; and that the preſent motion was contrary to the rules of eſtabliſhed policy, and tended to palſy the powers of Europe, and to increaſe the power of France. The queſtion being put, the motion was negatived without a diviſion.

Soon after this came on the diſcuſſion of the bill for continuing the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act, which was introduced by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, on the 20th of December. Againſt this bill it was argued, that there were now no inſurrections in the country, nor had there been leſs diſaffection in any period ſince the Revolution; that upwards of 70 perſons were now confined in conſequence of the ſuſpenſion of that act; and that they had been treated with unprecedented rigour and inhumanity, particularly in the priſon of Cold-Bath Fields. It was anſwered, That what was ſaid about the miſmanagement of a certain gaol might be uſed as an argument againſt all priſons; but could have no relation to the queſtion in hand. It was denied that any undue ſeverity had been uſed. And it was aſſerted, that,

as there could now be no doubt that a dangerous conſpiracy had exiſted in this country, as well as in Ireland, it muſt require ſome time before the minds of men who had been connected with that conſpiracy could return to a proper temper; and therefore the meaſure propoſed was ſtill neceſſary. The bill accordingly paſſed by a great majority in both Houſes; and on the 9th of January it received the royal aſſent.

After ſpending a good deal of time, in the beginning of the ſeſſion, in providing the ſupplies, the principal thing that engaged the attention of Parliament, was the ſcheme of an union with Ireland. This was introduced by a meſſage from his Majeſty to the Houſe of Commons, on the 22d of January, bearing, that as the perſeverance of our enemies, in the deſign of ſeparating Ireland from this kingdom, could not fail to engage the attention of Parliament; his Majeſty recommended it to the Houſe, to conſider of the beſt means of finally defeating that deſign, and of ſettling ſuch a complete and final adjuſtment, as may beſt tend to improve and perpetuate the connection neceſſary for their common ſecurity, and the conſolidation of the Britiſh empire. When this meſſage was taken into conſideration on the following day, and an addreſs of thanks to his Majeſty was moved for, a long amendment was propoſed by Mr Sheridan, in which the Houſe ſhould "expreſs their "ſurpriſe at learning from his Majeſty, for the firſt "time, that the final adjuſtment made between the "two kingdoms in 1782 had not produced the ef-"fects expected from it; that his faithful Commons "had reaſon to believe that it was the intention of "miniſters to propoſe a union of the legiſlatures of

"the

" the two kingdoms; and humbly imploring his Ma-
" jeſty not to liſten to the counſels of thoſe who
" ſhould adviſe ſuch a meaſure in the preſent criſis."

Againſt this it was argued, that the adjuſtment in 1782 was never conſidered as final; that the members in Oppoſition had, for three years paſt, been calling for inquiries into the ſtate of Ireland, but now they wiſhed for no inveſtigation; and that it was ſurely the moſt proper time, after the detection and defeat of theſe machinations, which aimed at a complete deſtruction of all connection between Britain and the ſiſter-kingdom, to examine into, and adopt the moſt effectual means for counteracting the pernicious conſequences that might ſtill flow from theſe machinations. It was ſaid, there might be caſes in which the legiſlatures of the two kingdoms might differ, as in the caſe of the regency ſome years ago; and that the meaſure propoſed was meant to provide for the ſafety and proſperity of Ireland. The amendment was withdrawn, and the addreſs carried without oppoſition.

Something ſimilar to what was propoſed in his Majeſty's meſſage, had been mentioned to the Parliament of Ireland in the Lord Lieutenant's ſpeech, at the opening of the Seſſion on the 22d of January. An amendment was propoſed to the addreſs, in the Houſe of Commons, expreſſing abhorrence of an union. This was negatived only by one voice, and the original addreſs was carried by a majority of two. But next day, ſome members propoſed to expunge from that addreſs, the paragraph which ſpoke of " conſolidating into one fabric the ſtrength of both " countries." And the queſtion being put, it was expunged, by a majority of ſix.

On the 31ſt of January, when the King's meſſage came to be conſidered in the Britiſh Houſe of Commons, Mr Pitt ſaid he had hoped for more favourable accounts from Ireland. He had no doubt but the Iriſh Parliament had power to accept or reject a propoſition of this nature. But he felt it his duty, as a member of the Britiſh Parliament, to expreſs the general outlines of a plan, which, he thought, would tend to enſure the ſafety and happineſs of the two kingdoms. If Parliament ſhould be of the ſame opinion, he ſhould propoſe it to be recorded, that the Parliament of Great Britain was ready to abide by it, leaving it to the legiſlature of Ireland to adopt or reject it hereafter, upon a full conſideration of the ſubject. And after various arguments in favours of an union, he laid before the Houſe the outlines of his plan, in a ſeries of eight propoſitions, the ſubſtance of which is as follows:

I. That it will be adviſeable to unite the two kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland into one kingdom, upon ſuch terms as may be eſtabliſhed by acts of their reſpective Parliaments.

II. That upon a day to be agreed on, theſe two kingdoms ſhall be united into one, by the name of *The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.*

III. That the ſucceſſion of the monarchy in ſaid united kingdom ſhall continue to be limited and ſettled, as it now is, by exiſting laws, and by the terms of the union between England and Scotland.

IV. That ſaid united kingdom be repreſented in one Parliament; and that ſuch a number of Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and ſuch a number of members in the Houſe of Commons, as ſhall be agreed upon

upon by both Parliaments previous to the Union, ſhall ſit and vote in ſaid United Parliament, on the part of Ireland; and be returned in ſuch a manner as ſhall be fixed by an act of the Iriſh Parliament before the union. The ſame oaths to be taken by members as are now required, till the United Parliament ſhall otherwiſe determine.

V. That the churches of England and Ireland ſhall be preſerved as by law eſtabliſhed.

VI. That the ſubjects of Ireland ſhall, in all time coming, be entitled to the ſame privileges, and be upon the ſame footing, in reſpect of trade and navigation, with the ſubjects in Britain. (This propoſition contains a number of equaliſing clauſes, too long to be here inſerted.)

VII. That the charge ariſing from the payment of intereſt, or ſinking fund for the reduction of the principal of the debt incurred by either kingdom before the union, ſhall continue to be ſeparately defrayed by each country reſpectively. (Here alſo ſundry clauſes are introduced, tending to prevent Ireland from being required to bear more than her proportion of public burdens.)

VIII. That all laws in force at the time of the union, and all courts of civil or eccleſiſtical juriſdiction, ſhall continue as now eſtabliſhed in each kingdom reſpectively, but ſubject to ſuch alterations as circumſtances may appear to the United Parliament to require.

Theſe reſolutions, Mr Pitt propoſed, ſhould be laid before his Majeſty, accompanied with an addreſs, expreſſive of a firm perſuaſion, that upon ſuch principles an entire union might be brought about, in a manner tending

tending to defeat the projects of enemies, and secure to the subjects of both kingdoms, the blessings of our free constitution, as well as to support the dignity of his Majesty's crown, and to promote the happiness of the whole British empire.

After many days spent in reasoning on these propositions, they were agreed to, with some amendments. The Ministry chiefly insisted upon the unfavourable reception which the measure had met with in Ireland, and upon something in the sixth proposition, which they affected to think unfavourable to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain.

Though the same business had been introduced to the House of Peers on the same day, (22d of January), and by a similar message from the throne; yet, except the address of thanks, they did nothing further in it till the 18th of February, when Lord Temple was sent to them with a message from the Commons, desiring a conference, which was immediately held in the Painted Chamber, where the propositions were communicated to the Lords, and after being read by their clerk, were ordered to be printed. In this House, also, much time was spent in pondering the resolutions, in calling for and considering such papers as were thought necessary for clearing up the subject. At length, on the 11th of April, the Lords having been summoned for the purpose, Lord Grenville moved an address to his Majesty, approving the resolutions sent up to them by the Commons, signifying that they think an union with Ireland necessary to the security and happiness of both countries; and beseeching his Majesty to communicate the said resolutions to the Parliament of Ireland in a proper time.

Lord Grenville then moved, That a conference with the

the Commons ſhould be deſired the following day; and that the managers of the conference on the part of their Lordſhips be inſtructed to requeſt the Commons to agree to the above addreſs; and that it be preſented to his Majeſty as the joint addreſs of both Houſes. The conference was held, and the propoſal made accordingly. When the addreſs came to be conſidered in the Houſe of Commons, there was very little oppoſition made to it. It was accordingly agreed to, and preſented as the joint addreſs of Lords and Commons. That ſuch an addreſs had been preſented, accompanied with propoſitions for an entire union between the two countries, was intimated by the Lord Lieutenant to the Iriſh Parliament on the day of their prorogation, the 1ſt of June; but no further ſteps were taken in the affair till the next year.

A great part of this ſeſſion of the Britiſh Parliament was taken up in adjuſting and perfecting the plan of the income-tax, and the bill for the redemption of the land-tax. For though both theſe had been introduced before, and conſiderable progreſs had been made in them, as was ſtated above, it was not till this ſeſſion that either of theſe bills paſſed into a law.

The ſtate of Ireland, during the firſt part of this year, was far from being tranquil. A new Rebel Directory was formed, which kept up the ſpirit of rebellion by hopes of aſſiſtance from France. And it was found neceſſary to paſs an act of Parliament, empowering the Lord Lieutenant to iſſue orders for bringing offenders to ſummary puniſhment by martial law, and empowering courts-martial to puniſh with death, or otherwiſe, perſons ſuſpected of aiding or abetting rebellion, or injuring the perſons or properties

perties of his Majeſty's loyal ſubjects, in furtherance of ſuch rebellion. The act likewiſe prohibited the civil power from interfering with the ſentences of courts-martial; as had ſometimes been done, by bringing up to the Court of King's Bench, by *habeas corpus*, men whom courts-martial had condemned to tranſportation. However, no attempt was made towards any general inſurrection, though outrages were committed in different parts of the country.

In the cloſe of the year 1798, we left General Championet in his camp of Santo Germano, refuſing the armiſtice propoſed by General Mack; and reſolving not to halt till he ſhould get poſſeſſion of Naples. In purſuance of his plan, he marched forward to Tora, where he was informed of the ſucceſs of General Rey on the poſt of Gaeta, where he had found immenſe quantities of ſtores, with a vaſt train of artillery. Here alſo he received the news of the ſucceſs of his left wing under General Duheſme, who had forced his way along the coaſt of the Adriatic, till he arrived on the banks of the Vomano, where he found the Neapolitans drawn up to oppoſe him. He repulſed them, croſſed the river in their preſence, and, by throwing a body of troops on their flank, obtained a complete victory. At this time, the rear of the French army was threatened by a body of inſurgents, who, to the number of 6000, had taken poſſeſſion of Teramo, and put to death every Frenchman which fell into their hands. Againſt theſe, Duheſme ſent back ſome detachments, and with the reſt of his army marched forward to Petcara. And, though he had neither artillery nor ammunition, he prevailed with the garriſon to open the gates of that important place.

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The centre of the French army under General Lemoine had paſſed the Appenines, haraſſed by the peaſantry of the country, who deſtroyed his men without mercy, wherever they had it in their power. He found the centre of the Neapolitan army ſtrongly entrenched at Popili. But he found means to diſlodge them, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, and obtained poſſeſſion of the town. He did not, however, reap all the advantage from his victory that he might have done, had he known the poſition of the other parts of the French army.

Championet, in the mean time, had gone to Venafro, to concert with Lemoine the operations of the ſiege of Capua. That city was already inveſted by the French. General Rey, on the one ſide, had poſted himſelf along the Volturno, which covers the city towards the ſea. Macdonald had marched down from Calvi, to reconnoitre it on the other ſide. A ſlight ſkirmiſh enſued between his men and an outpoſt of the Neapolitans, who, being forced to retire into the city, the French had hopes of entering it along with them; but were repulſed by the cannon of the place, and compelled to retire to Cajazzo, where Macdonald took his poſition.

When Championet returned from Venafro to Teano, where he had his head-quarters, he found diſpatches from General Rey, informing him, that a prodigious number of the country-people had aſſembled in arms at Sofia, and menaced the French camp. Strong detachments were immediately ſent againſt them; but the inſurgents were in ſuch force, that they beat the invaders in ſeveral ſucceſſive engagements, and forced them to retreat. During theſe conflicts, other bodies of inſurgents poſſeſſed themſelves

ſelves of the bridges on the Garigliano, which they cut down, ſeized the park of artillery belonging to the French army, burnt the ammunition-waggons, plundered the baggage, and made themſelves maſters of all the poſitions on that ſide.

While theſe things were tranſacted in the rear of the French army, ſome general officers, commiſſioned by Pegnatelli, whom the King of Naples had left in that city, with the title of Viceroy, came to the French General, to propoſe an armiſtice, in order, as they ſaid, to conclude a ſtable peace. They offered to ſurrender Capua, and to draw a line, within which the armies ſhould wait the orders of their reſpective governments. Though ſurpriſed that ſuch an offer was made, in the preſent ſituation of his army, he refuſed to enter into any diſcuſſion, unleſs the ſurrender of Naples was included in the armiſtice. The ſame offer was again made to him the next day, and again refuſed.

But, on returning from this conference to his head-quarters at Teano, Championet found the place evacuated; the troops that guarded it having fallen back, upon being threatened with an attack by a body of inſurgents. Theſe were diſperſed; but the ſame evening, Championet was informed that the inſurrection was general, that Lemoine's head-quarters were attacked, and that all communication with Duheſme was cut off. Indeed, the whole country round had taken arms. Championet's baggage was plundered, his equipage pillaged, one of his aides-de-camp burnt alive, and another taken priſoner; his army ſurrounded, without proviſions or ammunition, for the burning of their waggons had left to each ſoldier only a ſingle round of cartridges. The Neapoli-

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tans were preparing for a general attack; a number of troops that had embarked at Leghorn, were about to land in the mouth of the Garigliano, to fall on the rear of the French, while General Mack was to attack them in front.

In this ſituation, the Republican General was calling in all his out-poſts, to make one deſperate effort, when a trumpet announced the arrival of the ſame deputation from the viceroy, for the third time, with more extenſive powers. An armiſtice was then concluded, on the following terms: Capua was to be given up to the French, with all its artillery and ſtores. The whole country was to be in their poſſeſſion, as far as Acerra before Naples; the line of demarcation was to extend from thence, along by Benevento, to the Adriatic; the ports of the kingdoms were to be evacuated by all ſhips of hoſtile powers, and the Neapolitans were to pay to their invaders ten millions of livres. This armiſtice was to be ratified by both governments; and if it ſhould be rejected by either, no hoſtilities were to take place, till after three days notice.

This diſgraceful treaty was ſigned on the 21ſt of January. It would be in vain to enquire for the reaſons that induced the Neapolitans to conſent to it in ſuch circumſtances; nothing but either groſs infatuation, or the baſeſt treachery, can account for it. Championet, in the mean time, never meant to obſerve it. He wrote to the Directory, that a ſuſpenſion of arms with ſuch a government, was nothing more than a ſtratagem of war; that ſuch articles were impoſed as would lead the Neapolitans to break the armiſtice when he pleaſed; and that he would be in

Naples, before the news of the ſurrender of Capua could reach Paris.

To facilitate the accompliſhment of his promiſe, he kept up a correſpondence with a diſcontented party in Naples, who were brought openly to declare their reſolution to co-operate with the French, in the deſtruction of the old government. A particular circumſtance brought on the criſis, ſooner than it was expected. A French agent had been ſent to the viceroy at Naples, to haſten the payment of the money agreed on by the treaty. His appearance raiſed a violent fermentation in the city; he was in danger of being torn in pieces, but was ſaved by the party who were leagued with France; and a ſerious affray took place. The Lazzaroni, who were in the royal intereſt, took poſſeſſion of all the arms, and ran through the city, calling the names of the King and St Januarius. General Mack, and the remains of the army which he commanded, were ſtigmatized as traitors and Jacobines, and the viceroy himſelf found it prudent to withdraw to his barge, and ſet ſail for Palermo in Sicily, where the King and royal family had arrived not long before.

The ſoldiers, who compoſed the Neapolitan army, whether terrified by the threats of the Lazzaroni, or really attached to the Republican cauſe, deſerted in a body, and were ſoon incorporated with the French army. General Mack, abandoned to the capricious fury of the Lazzaroni, found no better means of ſafety than to demand an aſylum from Championet. The French General gave him a paſſport to Milan, where he was ſeized by order of the Directory, and treated as a priſoner of war.

The Lazzaroni, finding that the ſoldiers had deſerted,

ſerted, ruſhed out, like madmen, on the French, routed the advanced guards, and penetrated even to the line. But the ſoldiers bore down upon the ragged multitude, and having killed ſome, and diſperſed the reſt, returned to their poſts. Naples was, for a ſhort time, wholly in the power of the Lazzaroni, who declared their reſolution to exterminate the French and their partizans. But the young Prince of Molliterno, a ſecret friend of French liberty, artfully mingled himſelf among them, and ſucceeded in perſuading them to elect him their General. He had begun, in concert with others of the ſame principles, to enter into negotiations with the French General; which being diſcovered, his new army revolted from him, and began to plunder thoſe whom they ſuſpected of Jacobiniſm, and put ſome of them to death, in the moſt ſummary manner.

Though Championet knew, that the Lazzaroni, who were ſubject, at that time, to no law, acted by no authority but their own; yet he conſidered their attack upon his out-poſts as a breach of the armiſtice, and made it the ſignal for an attack upon Naples. Molliterno and his friends ſeized the caſtle of St Elmo, and invited the French to their aſſiſtance. Championet brought forward his army in two grand diviſions, and brought in ſuch detachments from the adjacent country, as could be ſpared from the no leſs dangerous ſervice of cruſhing the armed peaſants.

Next day the French army took poſſeſſion of the heights near the city. They eſtabliſhed a correſpondence, by ſignals, with their friends in Fort St Elmo, and placed their artillery in ſuch poſitions as gave it the command of the town. Every thing was ready for

for the aſſault, when Championet ſent a proclamation, by the hands of a chief of brigade, addreſſed to the magiſtrates, pretending anxiety to prevent the ſhedding of blood, and offering terms of capitulation. But there were now no magiſtrates in Naples. It was wholly in the power of the Lazzaroni, who, to the number of 60,000, had ſworn to defend it to the laſt. They received the meſſenger of Championet with a volley of muſquetry. He attempted to explain to them his General's propoſitions, but a ſecond volley obliged him to retreat.

Finding that theſe men were not to be prevailed upon by any thing but force, the republican General determined upon the aſſault. Orders were given for two battalions to march in the ſilence of the night, through-bye-ways, to join the patriots in St Elmo, when the caſtle was to make a general diſcharge of all its artillery upon the town. On this ſignal all the French batteries were to be opened, the whole army were to ruſh forward, and bear down every thing that ſhould oppoſe them. Columns, armed with torches, were to carry fire and deſolation wherever they could penetrate. Such were the orders given and executed. The Lazzaroni met the aſſault with amazing courage and addreſs. They fought everywhere like lions. When repulſed, they returned to the charge; and ſeveral times repulſed the French in their turn. The French had got poſſeſſion of ſeveral ſtreets, and the Lazzaroni were hard preſſed, but not vanquiſhed, when night overtook the combatants. Then the French troops, overcome with fatigue, divided themſelves into two equal portions. One halt kept up the fight, while the other lay down to reſt amidſt corpſes and ruins. In the morning the combatants,

combatants, on both ſides, redoubled their fury, and the victory was yet in ſuſpenſe.

A momentary ceſſation of carnage took place, through the exhauſted ſtate of both parties, when Championet found means to ſpeak with ſome of the inhabitants, who had ventured out of their houſes. Finding that an attachment to St Januarius was their principal foible, he pretended great reſpect for the ſaint. The news of the General's converſion flew like lightning through the city. The report of his reſpect for Januarius was carried into the ranks of the Lazzaroni, and inſtantly they alſo were converted from their hoſtility to the French. A cry of *Vivent les François* began to be heard among them! One of their chiefs placed himſelf near the head of the French, harangued his terrible ſoldiers, ordered them to ceaſe their fire, and ground their arms. He was heard with reſpect and obeyed. All reſiſtance was now at an end, and the French got entire poſſeſſion of the city. This happened on the 24th of January, only three days after the ſigning of the armiſtice.

Theſe things were immediately followed by the publication of a law, enjoining, that the Neapolitan Republic ſhould be proviſionally governed by twenty-one citizens, who were named in the edict, till the conſtitutional government ſhould be organized. They were to be inveſted both with the legiſlative and executive authority; only, their decrees were not to have the force of a law, till ſanctioned by the French General. But while Championet was buſy in the organization of this new republic, he was ſurpriſed by a mandate from the Directory, ordering him, and five other Generals, who had ſerved under him, to ſurrender themſelves priſoners of ſtate, and to undergo a trial, before a court-martial,

martial, for diſobedience. The caſe, it ſeems, was this: It was in conſequence of a ſecret treaty with the Directory, and with their conſent, that the King of Naples took poſſeſſion of Rome. Championet, not being informed of this, thought himſelf warranted not only to drive him out of Rome, but alſo from his throne, and to take poſſeſſion of his capital, without waiting for orders from Paris. The Directory were pleaſed to ſee all this done, and therefore ſaid nothing till the buſineſs was finiſhed. But as the whole was a direct breach of faith on the part of the French, they wanted to turn the odium of it from themſelves, and lay it upon their Generals. They continued priſoners for ſome time. But the ſtruggle, which, ſoon after, put an end to the Directory, prevented their trial from taking place.

No ſteps, however, were taken to undo what Championet had done, to reſtore the King of Naples to his throne, or to free his capital from the uſurpations of the French. General Macdonald continued in the command of the army in Naples, till the beginning of May, during which time he created a national guard ſufficiently numerous; and when he and his army were called off to another ſervice, he left a ſtrong French garriſon in the caſtle of St Elmo, as well as Capua, and in Gaeta, both which belonged to the kingdom of Naples.

After the departure of the French army, thoſe of the inhabitants of Naples who had only ſubmitted through neceſſity to the laws of the new Republic, began to conceive hopes of deliverance. The tyrannical conduct of the French agents, who were actuated by no principle but a rage for plunder, had alienated the minds of many, who had formerly been their

their friends. And the news of the defeat of the French armies in the north of Italy, which happened about this time, tended to make the inſurrection general. In the mean time, Cardinal Ruffo was at the gates, with an army, which he had collected in Calabria, aſſiſted by 2000 Britiſh, and 500 Ruſſian troops. The French party, finding it impoſſible to reſiſt the torrent, withdrew into the forts of St Elmo and Caſtello Novo. They were ſeveral times attacked, but with little ſucceſs. After a fruitleſs warfare of ten days, the Cardinal, who took the title of the Vicar of the King of Naples, offered them terms; and they, in conjunction with Megeout, the commander of the French garriſon in St Elmo, entered into a capitulation with him. It was agreed, that the members of the new Government, and other Neapolitans who were in the fortreſſes, as well as the French ſoldiers, ſhould march out with the honours of war; and ſhould be conducted to Toulon, with their arms and baggage. And the fort of St Elmo was not to be evacuated till the other articles were fulfilled.

Owing to contrary winds, and other circumſtances, the Republicans continued in the roads for ſeventeen days. At the end of that time, Lord Nelſon, with a Britiſh fleet, appearing before the port of Naples, blocked up all the ſhips in which they were to have been conveyed to Toulon. On the 27th of June, Captain Troubridge, by his Lordſhip's order, landed, with the marines of the fleet, Britiſh and Portugueſe, and took poſſeſſion of the town. Such French and rebels as were found in the caſtles Ovo and Novo were embarked, and a garriſon was put into each. St Elmo refuſing to ſurrender, it was beſieged for thirteen days. After which, the garriſon were forced

ced to capitulate. The French ſoldiers were permitted to depart; and many of the rebels attempted to eſcape, by taking the French uniform, and mixing in the ranks; but moſt of them were detected, and detained.

On the 10th of July, the King of Naples arrived in the bay, in a Britiſh frigate. He immediately publiſhed an edict, declaring, that Cardinal Ruffo had no authority to enter into negotiation with rebels, and diſannulling the convention that had been made. The veſſels were accordingly boarded in which the Neapolitan republicans were, they were taken to priſon, and a ſpecial commiſſion was appointed to try them. Sentence of death was pronounced againſt ſuch as had taken an active part in the late government, and ſome of them were executed. Reports were induſtriouſly propagated, of unparalleled cruelties committed by the Court of Naples, and even by the Lazzaroni and other friends of royalty among the people, on this occaſion. But the Court vindicated itſelf by a manifeſto, in which it was proved, that the rebels had been tried by competent tribunals, and that of thoſe who had been condemned, only the moſt guilty had been puniſhed with death. And we have the teſtimony of Lord Nelſon, that, under the protection of the garriſon which he placed there, the city of Naples was as quiet as ever it had been.

In the mean time, Captain Troubridge, with his little army, marched to Capua, which he beſieged for ſix days, and obliged the garriſon to capitulate on his own terms, on the 26th of July. Next day they marched out, laid down their arms, and were conducted to Naples, as priſoners of war. Gaeta ſoon followed the fate of Capua, and by the 1ſt of Auguſt,

Auguſt, the whole kingdom of Naples was delivered, chiefly by the valour of a few Britiſh ſeamen and marines, from that band of robbers which had held it in ſubjection ſo long.

The Congreſs at Radſtadt, which had ſpent the preceding year in doing nothing, continued to ſit a part of this year alſo. On the 1ſt of January, the French plenipotentiaries remitted a note to the Imperial miniſter, ſtating, that if the Diet of Ratiſbon did not uſe every means in their power to prevent the entrance of Ruſſian troops on the territory of the empire, it would be conſidered by France as a rupture of the armiſtice, the negotiations would be broke off, and hoſtilities would recommence. This declaration of the French miniſters cauſed much perplexity among the members of the Deputation; but, without debating the principle of it, they voted, that it ſhould be ſent both to the Diet at Ratiſbon, and to the Court of Vienna. This declaration was communicated, on the 10th, to Count Lehrbach, who was miniſter to the Emperor, as King of Hungary and Bohemia; and the French miniſters added, that they had orders to declare, that leaving a free paſſage to an army of a power who had declared war againſt France, would be conſidered as a rupture of thoſe ties which had bound both ſtates. And his Majeſty was deſired to give a preciſe and ſatisfactory explanation on the ſubject. The Diet only reſolved, that the members ſhould procure inſtructions from their conſtituents, with all poſſible ſpeed, and that this reſolution ſhould be ſent to the Deputation at Radſtadt, with the formal notice, that no requiſition had yet been made to the empire, concerning the march of the Ruſſian troops. And the Emperor expreſſed

his aſtoniſhment, that the French ſhould have addreſſed the Deputation upon a buſineſs which had no relation to their miſſion, and his ſatisfaction that the Deputation had referred it to thoſe whom it concerned; and he ſignified, that he would wait the report which the Diet ſhould make on the affair. The Deputation coincided with the opinion of the Imperial Court, and declared, that the march of the Ruſſian troops was an affair about which they were not competent to do any thing.

Very different was the opinion of the French negotiators: They declared, by a note, on the 31ſt of January, that they had orders neither to receive nor remit any note on any other point, till they had a ſatisfactory anſwer concerning the Ruſſian troops. On the ſame day they declared, by a meſſage, to the Auſtrian miniſter, that unleſs the Emperor ſhould compel the Ruſſian troops to evacuate the Auſtrian territories, and thoſe of the empire, within fifteen days, hoſtilities would commence between the French and him. As neither the Diet at Ratiſbon, nor the Emperor, gave ſuch an anſwer to the French note as was deſired, a French army of 25,000 men, under the command of General Jourdan, paſſed the Rhine at Kehl, on the 1ſt of March, and entered Suabia. At the ſame time, the French miniſters delivered to the Deputation of the empire, a proclamation, ſigned by the preſident in name of the Directory, in which they ſignify their ardent wiſh for peace, and declare, that they were under a neceſſity to order their armies to take ſuch poſitions as circumſtances required, for their own defence, in regard that the march of the Ruſſians was continued, and that the Emperor, inſtead of giving a ſatisfactory anſwer to that note, had led his

his troops acroſs the Inn, beyond the limits of his hereditary dominions.

The Deputation aſſembled, to take this proclamation under conſideration, and came to a concluſion, that it ſhould be ſent to the Diet, accompanied with an intimation, that the majority of the Deputation were now convinced of the neceſſity of giving an anſwer to the note concerning the march of the Ruſſians; that this deliberation ſhould be delivered to the Imperial commiſſary, and he deſired to communicate to the French miniſters, the deſire of the Deputation to concur in all poſſible efforts for peace. A note from the commiſſary of the Emperor, communicated on the 4th of March, informed the Deputation, that he could not approve their concluſion, as they ought to have ſatisfied themſelves with communicating the French proclamation to the general Diet; and ſuſpended any further declaration, till they had got the deciſion of the Emperor, and of the empire, according to a former concluſion.

At length, on the 21ſt of March, the Diet of Ratiſbon decided, that, as no requiſition had been made concerning the march of the Ruſſian troops, nor any legal notice received on that ſubject, the Diet ought to wait, in confidence that the Emperor would take the moſt proper methods to maintain tranquillity, and to accelerate peace. This was notified to the French miniſters, by Count Metternich, on the 8th of April. He, at the ſame time, complained, that the French, notwithſtanding their profeſſed deſire for peace, had actually begun the war, without any declaration of the rupture of the armiſtice; and intimated, that by this means the correſpondence of the members of the Congreſs was liable

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to interruption, and their continuance in the place might even be dangerous. He added, that, having received orders to take no further part in the negotiations for peace, he ſhould leave the place of Congreſs, but would inform the French miniſters of the reſolutions of his Imperial Majeſty.

Still the French negotiators continued at Radſtadt, notwithſtanding this intimation, and notes paſſed and repaſſed between them and the Deputation, till the 28th of April, when Colonel Barbaczy, who commanded the advanced poſts of the Auſtrian army, ſent to them a letter, ſignifying, that, as it did not accord with military plans for citizens of France to continue in places poſſeſſed by the Imperial army, they muſt leave Radſtadt within twenty-four hours. This letter was brought to them at ſeven o'clock in the evening; and they declared, that they were ready, and would depart at nine. They were deſired to wait till morning, when they might travel with greater ſafety; but they refuſed. An eſcort was then offered them, which two of them, Roberjot and Bonnier, would have accepted; but the third, Jean Debry, and the ſecretary named Roſenſtiel, abſolutely refuſed it, ſaying, That the ambaſſadors of liberty were not to be protected by the ſoldiers of deſpotiſm.

They ſet out accordingly, about ten o'clock, with their ſecretaries, wives, and ſervants, in five coaches; but had not gone far from the city, when they were attacked by a band of armed men. Two of them were moſt inhumanly murdered, viz. Roberjot and Bonnier. The other, with all the reſt of the company, were ſuffered to eſcape, and returned to the town. The French accounts, which were induſtriouſly

ſtriouſly propagated through all Europe, ſtated, that this horrid act was committed by a company of Auſtrian huſſars, and that by order of their ſuperiors; and that they carried the papers of the Legation to their head-quarters. But, when the affair came to be inquired into, there was found reaſon to ſuſpect that the murder was committed by Frenchmen, hired by Jean Debry himſelf, and the ſecretary, with the knowledge and approbation of the Directory, to prevent the diſcovery of their double dealings, that muſt have been made to the French people, and to all the world, if theſe two men had been ſuffered to return, with their papers, to Paris.

Some of the circumſtances which gave occaſion to this opinion were the following. Jean Debry refuſed the eſcort which the two who were murdered would have accepted. The ſervants declared, that when the aſſaſſins approached, Debry, who rode in the firſt coach, got out of the coach, ran towards them, crying, I am Jean Debry, plenipotentiary of the French Republic; and that, after appearing to give him ſeveral blows, they ſuffered him to evaniſh. A company of Auſtrian huſſars, hearing diſmal cries about the place, came up, and found the mangled bodies of the two ambaſſadors, but the murderers were fled: Debry and Roſenſtiel were not to be found: The reſt of the company were unhurt, but in deep diſtreſs; and the Auſtrians, inſtead of doing them any injury, conducted them ſafely into the town. The aſſaſſins, after taking from Roſenſtiel the papers of the Legation, threw them into the Murg, and ſuffered him to eſcape. He came into the town on foot, about twelve o'clock in the night, and when interrogated, either could not, or would not give any diſtinct account of what

what he ſaw, or how he got away from the aſſaſſins. Jean Debry returned into the town at ſeven the next morning, his face and hands beſmeared with blood, and pretending to have received many wounds. He refuſed to admit a ſurgeon to inſpect his wounds, but one was ſent for, and he was obliged to ſubmit. It was then found that he had on a coat and riding-coat, whoſe cloth and lining were of uncommon thickneſs. Of fifty or ſixty cuts, which were in the riding-coat, not one had reached his body; nor had he any wound, but a very ſlight ſcratch on his wriſt, which ſeemed to have been made of purpoſe. The commander of the Auſtrian forces immediately ſent out patroles, in ſearch of the murderers. And on the next day they brought in two Frenchmen of a very ſuſpicious appearance. When interrogated, they were much embarraſſed in their anſwers. Being ſearched, there was found in the pocket of each, a purſe, containing fifty pieces of gold in French coin; and in the pocket of one of them a note of the following tenor:

Raſtadt, 9th Floreal, 8 o'clock at night.

We depart hence in an hour,—you will ſee us between nine and ten,—our carriages will be lighted. —Jean will be in the firſt, and I in the fourth, with the papers.—I recommend to you the third and fifth.

[Signed] R——L.

Beſides all this, it was known, that the two men who were murdered had made themſelves obnoxious to the Directory, by their pacific diſpoſition;—that Debry had been ſent as an inſpector of their conduct; —that

that he and his ſecretary had always different views from them; and that, in a diſpute with Roſentiel about fifteen days before their death, they had been heard to ſay, that they only waited their return to France, to denounce to the Legiſlative Body the abſurd politics of the Directory, and their inſtructions, by which they were ordered always to exact ſomething more than could be complied with, and at all events to force a rupture. Such is the account given of this dark tranſaction in Colonel Barbaozy's letters to the Archduke. Whether there is moſt probability in this account, or in that which was publiſhed by the authority of the French Directory, every reader will judge for himſelf.

Though it was manifeſt that both the Emperor and the French Government were determined upon war, the negotiations were continued, chiefly with a view to gain time; as neither party was in a ſtate of readineſs for action in the beginning of the year. The Auſtrian troops were diſperſed in provinces diſtant from the intended ſcene of action, and the march of the Auſtrians, in the winter-months, was neceſſarily ſlow. The flower of the French army had gone with Bonaparte to Egypt, and the conſcripts who had been voted did not enter the ſervice with their uſual alacrity. Their finances were in a very low ſtate, and the people had loſt all confidence in the Government, having diſcovered its groſs corruption.

Yet hoſtilities began on the ſide of the French, by Jourdan's croſſing the Rhine at Kehl on the 1ſt of March, as was noticed above. At the ſame time, another column paſſed the river at Baſle, ſo that his army in whole amounted to 40,000 men. An army of obſervation, under Bernadotte, advanced into the

Palatinate, about the ſame period. They ſummoned Philipſburg to ſurrender; but, as it was protected by an inundation, Bernadotte was forced to leave it. He then penetrated into the valley of Neckar, as far as Heilbron.

The advantage which the poſſeſſion of Switzerland gave to the French determined them to act on the offenſive. To prevent the junction of the Ruſſian and Auſtrian armies, it was thought neceſſary to diſlodge the latter from a ſtrong poſition which they held on the banks of the Adige. To ſecure the execution of this, it was neceſſary to ſeize on the paſſes of the mountains, and draw the attention of the Auſtrians towards the Danube. The Archduke, who had the command of the Auſtrian army, ſeems to have been aware of their deſign; for he took a poſition parallel to the French line of operations, the left of his army was at Kempten, the centre at Memmingen, and his right extended to Ulm, into which, as it was threatened, he threw a ſtrong body of troops, with a proper quantity of proviſions and ſtores. The French at this time in Swabia and in Switzerland, amounted to 80,000. The Auſtrian forces, from the Tyrol to the left of the Danube, were about 110,000. On the Lower Rhine, each had an army of about 25,000.

The firſt act of hoſtility took place between the right wing of the French and the left of the Imperial army. General Auffenberg commanded a detached body of Auſtrians in the Griſons. The French General Maſſena, with an army of 45,000 men, marched to Sargans, and ſummoned him to evacuate that country. Upon Auffenberg's refuſal, Maſſena directed a vigorous attack to be made on Feldkirch, to prevent General Hotze, who commanded there,

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from giving any aſſiſtance to Auffenberg at Coire while he detached a column on the right to turn Coire by the heights, and attack the bridges and poſts on the forks of the Rhine. The centre column paſſed the Rhine at the ſame time, and taking poſſeſſion of the poſt of Baltzars, cut off the communication between Feldkrich and the Griſons. Two poſts at the entrance of the valley were forced, after much reſiſtance, the fort of Lucienſtieg was taken by aſſault; and the French having forced another paſſage over the Rhine at Ragatz, and taken the poſt of Holdenſtein, Auffenberg being nearly ſurrounded, and having no means of receiving ſuccour, or of making good his retreat, was under the neceſſity of ſurrendering Coire; and his whole diviſion, conſiſting of 7000 men, became priſoners.

Though Maſſena thus got poſſeſſion of the Griſons, his attack upon Feldkirch was unſucceſsful. And while that place was in the hands of the Auſtrians, there could be no communication between Maſſena and Jourdan; but the latter was obliged to continue quiet in his poſition, watching the moment when he could draw off the left of the Archduke's army, turn the lake of Conſtance, and make a more ſucceſsful attack upon Feldkirch himſelf. Aware of his deſign, the Archduke, in order to preſerve that important poſt, paſſing the Iller on the 11th of March, eſtabliſhed his head-quarters at Wurzach, the line of his advanced poſts extending from Ulm to Lindau. Jourdan, ſenſible of the Archduke's ſuperiority in point of numbers, applied to Bernadotte, who commanded on the Rhine, for reinforcements. But as the Auſtrian army under General Stzaray lay between them, this was found impracticable.

At length, on the 12th of March, the entrenchments of Feldkirch were attacked by the French. They threw a bridge over the river, and at firſt ſucceeded in forcing two entrenchments. Six different times they renewed the attack, but were repulſed with conſiderable loſs. Three days after, they made a new attempt, but equally unſucceſsful. After this, the Archduke puſhed forward his vanguard in the direction of Stockach, and Jourdan fell back on Engen. A general engagement appearing now unavoidable, both parties made preparations for it. Jourdan, on the 18th of March, formed his head-quarters at Pfallendorf. His left, commanded by St Cyr and Vandamme, was poſted on the left of the Danube; his centre occupied the ſpace between the right bank of the river and Moſkirch; and his right, under the orders of Ferino, extended to the Lake of Conſtance. On the 20th, the Archduke's vanguard took its poſition on the heights of Sulgau and Altſchauſen, and his head-quarters were at Schawendorf. The main body was a ſhort day's march in the rear. A valley, watered by the little river Oſtrach, ſeparated the two armies. One of Jourdan's adjutants preſented himſelf before the Auſtrian camp, demanding if the diſpatches expected by the Directory had come from the Court of Vienna. Being anſwered in the negative, he proclaimed the rupture of the armiſtice, after it had been broken by their paſſing the Rhine three weeks before, and by all their operations ſince that time.

This was followed by a briſk attack. The Auſtrian vanguard was driven back, till detachments from the main body came up to ſupport it. Next day the Archduke made an attack in his turn. He formed

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his army into three columns. The right paſſed along the Danube; the left took the road to Pfallendorf, and the centre himſelf led through the marſhy valley of Oſtrach. Jourdan, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, unable to ſupport his left, which was flanked by the Auſtrians, retired from Oſtrach during the night, to the heights of Pfallendorf. But the progreſs of the right column of the Auſtrians did not permit him to keep that poſition. And the diſpoſitions which the Archduke made on the following day, the 23d, to ſurround his left wing, determined him to retreat that night to Stockach and Engen. The head of a French column, which advanced to Buchorn, was cut off, and made priſoners.

At the inſtant of Jourdan's attack upon the vanguard of the Auſtrians, General Hotze left Feldkirch, to be defended by the Generals that commanded under him, and marched with ten thouſand men, to oppoſe Jourdan's right wing. Appriſed of this, Maſſena took the opportunity to attack the entrenchments at Feldkirch in his abſence. He erected ſome batteries which commanded the left flank of the poſition; but a party of Auſtrians, under General Jellachich, carried them ſword in hand. But as his time was ſhort, Maſſena led on the attack himſelf. He was repulſed, however, with conſiderable loſs; for he did not withdraw, till he left the flower of his diviſion at the foot of the trenches. The remainder were forced to repaſs the Rhine; and General Hotze returned to his poſition.

The Archduke did not fail to follow up his late ſucceſs. He preſſed hard upon Jourdan, who having fallen back upon his ſtrong poſition behind Stockach, reſolved to make one effort more to draw off the Auſtrians

ſtrians from the Lake of Conſtance; as upon this depended the general ſucceſs of the campaign. With this view, on the 25th of March, he attacked the vanguard of the Imperial army, which had taken their poſition before Stockach. The engagement began on the left, where General St Cyr commanded. He attacked the right of the Auſtrians under General Meersfeld, with ſuch impetuoſity, that they were forced to retreat, part of them into a wood between Stockach and Lipptingen, and another part to Schwandorf, on the road to Moſkirch.

The Archduke's main body was about to be flanked, when he detached ſome forces from his left, to attack St Cyr, and drive him out of the wood, of which he was now in poſſeſſion. Here the engagement was obſtinate and bloody. The Archduke himſelf alighted, and charged at the head of his grenadiers. The Princes of Anhalt and Furſtemberg were killed as they led on their columns. At laſt the French were driven from the wood, and victory declared for the Auſtrians. The battle laſted from five in the morning, till night put an end to the carnage. Ten thouſand dead and wounded were left on the field of battle. Next morning General Jourdan, with his right wing, began his retreat towards Schaffhauſen, while the left croſſed the Danube by the bridge of Tuttlingen, and retreated through Rothweil. The Archduke fixed his head quarters at Lipptingen, and ſent ſtrong detachments upon the rear of the enemy, which took poſt at Hornberg.

The detachments which Maſſena had ſent into the mountains of the Tyrol had made themſelves maſters of that country, which is the key both of Italy and Germany. Caſa Bianca attacked the diviſion under General

General Laudohn, near Bormio, on the 16th of March, and forced it to retreat. Lecourbe, with his diviſion, having likewiſe entered the Engadin, as well as Caſa Bianca, they attacked the Auſtrians, in different poſts, without ſucceſs, at firſt. But being reinforced, Lecourbe, with his diviſion, marched upon Martinſbruch and Nauders, and directed the columns under Deſolles and Loiſeau upon the Munſterthal. In order to reach this valley, Deſolles, with his detachment, climbed one of the higheſt mountains of the Julian Alps, and turned the entrenched defiles, where the Auſtrians lay in perfect ſecurity, never dreaming that a hoſtile army could paſs a glacier hitherto deemed inacceſſible. He ſurpriſed and attacked the poſts of Glurentz and Tauffers, which General Laudohn had entrenched, and, after a warm reſiſtance, obliged them to ſurrender. General Loiſeau in the mean time had penetrated on another ſide, and flanked Nauders, while Lecourbe forced the poſt and paſſage of Martinſbruch. Thus, all means of retreat were cut off from the Auſtrians. Troops, cannon, and baggage were all taken. General Laudohn, with a ſmall number of infantry, and a few cavalry, broke through the French above Glurentz, and retreated to the valley of Venoſta, through which the Adige runs. There he met with General Bellegarde, who was marching to diſengage him. As this aſſiſtance came too late, the two Generals retired together, in order to cover Botzen; and the French were left for a time in poſſeſſion of the two great valleys of the Tyrol.

But that time was not long. Finding that Jourdan had been beaten, and that Maſſena had given up all hope of being able to act offenſively, Lecourbe withdrew into the Engadin, and Deſolles fell back upon Munſter,

Munſter, where he began to entrench himſelf in the defiles. But General Bellegarde having collected his forces, attacked Deſolles on the morning of the 4th of May, drove him, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, from Tauffers and Munſter. He retreated to Czernez, whence he was driven by a ſecond attack, and obliged to retire into the Upper Engadin.

During this period, little remarkable paſſed upon the Rhine. The left wing of Jourdan's army had retreated by the bridge of Kehl. Maſſena, who had now the command both of the army of Switzerland and that of the Rhine, fixed his head-quarters at Bazil, into which he put a ſtrong garriſon, and employed himſelf in putting the whole country along the Rhine in a ſtate of defence. The Archduke made only a few movements of no great importance, till, on the 13th of April, he inveſted Schaffhauſen, with his vanguard, under Count Nauendorf. The French General refuſing to ſurrender the out-poſts, they were firſt cannonaded, and then entered ſword in hand. The gates of the city were then forced, and the French retreated fighting acroſs the Rhine, and, on leaving the town, they burnt the bridge, which was ſo much famed for its curious and ſingular conſtruction. The Archduke did not loſe the advantage of his ſucceſs; he preſſed ſo hard upon Maſſena, that in leſs than fifteen days, he was obliged to yield up to him almoſt the whole courſe of the Rhine, and one half of Switzerland.

The campaign in the north of Italy was not opened, when that on the Danube was finiſhed by the retreat of Jourdan. During the above-mentioned ſtruggles in the Griſons and the Tyrol, the French army were endeavouring to diſlodge the Imperialiſts from a ſtrong poſition which they occupied, on the Lower Adige,

Adige, and to puſh them back to the Brenta. And, as the Ruſſians had not yet entered Italy, the French were anxious to have this operation accompliſhed before their arrival. Scherer, who had lately been miniſter at war in France, was now appointed to command the army of Italy. He had aſſembled his troops on the frontiers of the Ciſalpine Republic, behind Peſchiera and Mantua; while the Auſtrian army, under the command of General Kray, formed itſelf along the left ſide of the Adige, behind Verona and Porto Legnano. On the 26th of March, the whole Auſtrian line, from the Lake of Garda to the Adige, was attacked by the French in ſix columns. One of theſe menaced Porto Legnano, on the left flank of the Auſtrian army; two others marched upon Verona; while three whole diviſions attempted to force and turn the poſts on the right of the Auſtrian line, which extended to Bardolino, on the Lake of Garda. The principal object of this movement was to take Verona in the rear, on the left of the Adige, at the ſame time that they attacked it in front, from the right ſide of the river, and ſo to oblige the Imperialiſts to abandon the place. They ſucceeded ſo far as to carry the redoubts and entrenchments, to take poſſeſſion of Rivoli, paſs the Adige, and advance as far as Chiuſa. The two centre diviſions, commanded by Scherer himſelf, attacked the out-poſts of Verona. That of St Lucie was carried. That of St Maximin was taken and retaken ſeven times, but continued in the poſſeſſion of the Auſtrians at the laſt, as did all the other advanced poſts, except St Lucie. The attack upon Porto Legnano likewiſe failed, and the diviſion that made it was forced to fall back upon Mantua. Scherer quitted the field of battle the next

day, after ſome fruitleſs efforts; and the diviſion under Moreau, notwithſtanding their ſucceſs, were obliged to repaſs the Adige, and retreat to Peſchiera, in order to avoid being cut off. Three days after the firſt attack, a ſuſpenſion of arms took place, in order to bury the dead.

The day after this ſuſpenſion, which was the 30th of the month, Scherer again attacked all the Auſtrian poſts. Having diſlodged General Kaim from his poſition before Verona, he threw bridges over the river, and detached a diviſion, which drove back the advanced poſts of the Imperialiſts, to within half a league of Verona, and even gained a height, which covered their right flank. To repel this attack, General Kray detached the diviſion of General Frolich, who marched through the city, and, falling upon the French in three columns, drove them back to their bridges, after an obſtinate reſiſtance. This retreat was ſo precipitate, and the purſuit ſo briſk, that the bridges were broken down, and almoſt a whole column of the French were prevented from repaſſing the Adige. Part of them ſurrendered themſelves priſoners, and another part made a fruitleſs attempt to eſcape through the mountains. In this affair the French are ſaid to have loſt 7000 men.

Scherer now drew off his left from the Lake of Garda, leaving a ſtrong garriſon in Peſchiera, and concentered his forces between the Adige and the Tartaro. The right of his army was encamped before Porto Legnano, the main body at Magnan, and his head-quarters were at Iſola della Scala. He determined again to attack the Auſtrians at all points, on the 5th of April. But General Kray, having received ſome reinforcements the evening before, and having intelligence

ligence of the Frenchman's deſign, reſolved to be beforehand with him. He marched againſt him in three columns, underſtanding that the French General had made the ſame diſpoſition. The two armies met, and a dreadful engagement enſued. Every inch of ground was diſputed with great obſtinacy. Villa Franca, attacked by Serrurier, was alternately in poſſeſſion of both parties, but remained with the French in the cloſe of the day. The victory was long doubtful; but at length General Zoph having ſucceeded in flanking the right wing of the French, obliged them to retreat, and night put an end to the combat. The Auſtrians took ſixteen pieces of cannon, forty ammunition-waggons, ſeven ſtandards, and upwards of 2000 priſoners. Their own loſs was computed at 2000 killed and wounded. The enemy was ſuppoſed to have loſt 8000.

The immediate conſequences of the battle of Magnan were the evacuation of Villa Franca and Iſola della Scala by the French, who retired on the 7th to Roverbello. And, on the part of the Auſtrians, the blockade of Peſchiera and Mantua, the taking of the important poſt of Governolo, and the interruption of Scherer's communication with Ferrara. They alſo purſued their advantages, on the frontier between the Tyrol and Bergamo and Breſcia. On the 8th of April, the whole chain of French poſts, from Bormio to the Lakes of Idro and Garda, were attacked, and retreated to Breſcia, after evacuating their entrenchments and fortifications. Such was the poſition of the French and Auſtrian armies, when the firſt columns of Ruſſians arrived in Italy.

The French, unable to maintain themſelves in the neighbourhood of Mantua, continued their retreat,

and paſſed the Chiuſa at Iſola. General Klenau aſcending the Po with his armed boats, took poſſeſſion of thoſe poſts from which the garriſon of Mantua drew their ſupplies. Ponte Molino, Governolo, and ſome other places, were taken almoſt by ſurpriſe. At Lagoſcuro, Klenau took thirty-two boats, laden with 200 pieces of artillery, deſtined to form batteries on the banks of the Po; and a few days after, an equipage of pontoons fell into his hands. The French fleet of armed boats were forced to take refuge under the cannon of Peſchiera, which place was now bombarded, and ſuſtained a regular ſiege. The right of the Auſtrian army advanced beyond the Lake of Garda. General Vukaſſovich had been detached by Bellegarde, from the Tyrol, to join them, and had penetrated into the province of Breſcia; but he was obliged to defer the attack of that city, as Lecourbe had ſent reinforcements into it.

The French army continued its retreat, and General Kray, having been joined by General Melas, followed them, till the arrival of the Ruſſians under Suwarrow. That General reached Verona on the 13th of April, with the vanguard of his army, and preſſing the march of his columns, joined the Auſtrian army, the command of which was immediately aſſigned him. The French having fallen back behind the Adda, after throwing ſuccours into Mantua and Peſchiera, had their head-quarters at Lodi, on the 17th of April. It was at this period that Moreau ſucceeded Scherer in the command of the Republican army, now diminiſhed to one half of its numbers.

The combined army under Suwarrow were ſo much ſuperior in point of numbers, that Moreau was under a neceſſity of continuing to retreat. Breſcia was taken

taken by aſſault on the 20th of April. The garriſon, conſiſting of 1000 men, retired to the citadel, but were ſoon obliged to capitulate, and became priſoners of war. A ſally made by the garriſon of Mantua was repulſed. An engagement which took place under Cremona, between General Kaim's diviſion and the rear-guard of the French army, obliged the latter to croſs the Adda, and the advanced guard of the Auſtrians came within ſight of Lodi. Moreau now removed his head-quarters to Milan, entrenched his army on the Adda, broke down all the bridges on that river, and uſed every endeavour to haſten thoſe ſuccours which he expected from different quarters. His principal deſign ſeems to have been to draw the attention of Suwarrow towards thoſe parts, that he might leave his right diſengaged, and thereby facilitate his junction with thoſe reinforcements which he expected from Tuſcany and Genoa, and eſpecially with Macdonald's army, which, having been driven out of Naples, was now on its way to join him.

Suwarrow, leaving General Kray's diviſion employed in the ſiege of Peſchiera and Mantua, and having ſent detachments, under Kaim and Hohenzollern, towards Pizzigitone and Piacenza, had marched the reſt of the combined army from the Oglio to the Adda. On his arrival, he divided it into three columns. The right, under General Roſenberg, with a vanguard of Ruſſians under Vukaſſovich, filed off to the point of the Lake of Como, upon the poſt of Lecco. The centre-column, conſiſting of the diviſions of Ott and Zoph, marched upon Vaprio; and the left, under General Melas, encamped in ſight of Caſſano. The poſt of Lecco was taken by two battalions of grenadiers. Vukaſſovich marched upon

on Brivio, re-eſtabliſhed the bridge which the French had broken down, and took his poſition on the other ſide of the Adda, with four battalions, two ſquadrons, and four pieces of cannon. The centre-diviſion, having, during the night, thrown a bridge acroſs the Adda, ſurpriſed the French at Frezzo, drove them from their poſt, and purſued them almoſt to the gates of Milan.

General Moreau cauſed the diviſion of General Grenier to march upon Brivio, to ſupport that of Serrurier, which had been driven from Trezzo. A furious engagement took place between the French troops which had rallied, and General Ott's diviſion, who had already paſſed the bridge. A part of General Victor's diviſion, which had gained the flank of the Imperialiſts, was preparing to ſurround them, when Zoph's diviſion croſſed the river by the bridge at Trezzo, and turned the ſcale in favour of the Auſtrians. Serrurier was now completely ſurrounded, and cut off from all hope of aſſiſtance by thoſe diviſions which had attempted in vain to reach him. In this ſituation, he fought with deſperate courage; but at laſt was conſtrained to ſurrender himſelf with the wrecks of his diviſion, upon condition that the officers might return to France upon parole, and the men ſhould be immediately exchanged for ſuch of the allied army as might be made priſoners that day. General Melas, who marched upon Caſſano, forced the entrenchments of the Ritorto Canal, which he croſſed upon a flying bridge. He then ſtormed the head of the bridge over the Adda, with ſo much expedition, that he ſaved it from the fire which the French had ſet to it, and made uſe of it for the paſſage of his whole diviſion, which took poſt at Gorgin-

zols.

zols. This engagement happened on the 27th of April. The French army retreated through Milan during the night, and the combined army took poſſeſſion of it the next morning. In this affair, the conquerors took upwards of 5000 priſoners, eighty pieces of cannon, and ſeveral ſtandards. Six thouſand French were ſaid to be killed. The loſs on the other ſide is not ſpecified.

With whatever pleaſure many of the Italians perceived the ſucceſs of the French, upon their firſt invaſion of their country, they had now got ſuch a trial of French liberty as made them heartily ſick of it; and the combined armies were every where received with acclamations of joy. The Directory, intent upon nothing but their own aggrandiſement, had treated the little republics which they had erected in Italy as ſo many conquered provinces, and the people now welcomed the Auſtrians and Ruſſians as their deliverers from the yoke of real deſpotiſm. Suwarrow, therefore, found no impediment laid in the way of his progreſs by popular diſaffection. Accordingly, he continued his purſuit of the French army, extending his right into Upper Italy, and ſeparating the left of Moreau's army from the lakes and valleys which led to the principal entrances into Switzerland. By this means, the poſition of Maſſena's right wing became extremely delicate, particularly that of Lecourbe's diviſion, from the interruption of communication, and the difficulty of procuring ſubſiſtence.

CHAP.

CHAP. XVI.

Operations on the Frontiers of Switzerland.—Taking of Lucienſteig and the Griſons.—Progreſs of the Allies in Italy.—Peſchiera taken,—and Pizzighitone.—Moreau evacuates his Camp at Aleſſandria.—Allies enter Turin,—take the Citadel of Milan, Ferrara, and Ravenna.—March of Macdonald's Army.—Kray ſent againſt him.—Movements of the Archduke.—French driven from Zurich.—Motions of Macdonald and Moreau.—Battle of Modena.—Battle of the Trebbia.—Surrender of the Citadel of Turin,—and of Fort Urbino.—Macdonald marches to Genoa.—Tuſcany reſtored.—Aleſſandria capitulates,—and Mantua.—Movements on the Rhine.—Auſtrians defeated on the Reuſs.—Battle of Novi,—French enter Suabia.—Philipſburg beſieged,—and relieved.—Death of the Pope.—Rome inveſted,—ſurrenders to the Britiſh.—The Citadel of Tortona ſurrenders to Suwarrow,—who begins his march towards Switzerland,—retakes the Valley of the Reuſs.—Battle of Zurich,—of Mutten, and of Conſtance.—Suwarrow retreats.—Movements of the Archduke. Defection of the Ruſſians.—Battle of Savigliano.—Siege of Coni.—Ancona Surrenders,—and Coni.—The ſituation of both Armies at the cloſe of the year.

THE Archduke having been indiſpoſed at Stockach, and waiting till the ſucceſs of the Allies in Italy had ripened his plans, his army continued on the

the left ſide of the Rhine, without making any movement of importance, till the beginning of May. The army of Maſſena in Switzerland had been reinforced till it amounted to 60,000. General Bellegarde continued to haraſs Lecourbe in the Lower Engadin. General Hotze, with 20,000 men, was detached by his Royal Highneſs, to make an attack upon the Griſons. He concerted his meaſures with General Bellegarde, and they made a combined attack on every point of the French line on the 1ſt day of May, but with little ſucceſs. Lecourbe defeated the troops under Bellegarde in the Lower Engadin, taking the Prince De Ligne and ſome of his troops priſoners; while Genreral Hotze, who had ſurpriſed Geneal Menars in the Griſons, and penetrated as far as Mayenfield, was attacked in flank by General Chabrand, and driven back with conſiderable loſs.

The Griſons, too, were weary of French government. Ten thouſand peaſants, collected from that country, and from the ſmall cantons of Switzerland, took arms to co-operate with General Hotze, whoſe main deſign was againſt the fort of Lucienſteig, which was the key of the Griſons. Theſe peaſants ſurpriſed the French poſt at Diſentis, which is the point of communication between the Griſons and the cantons of Glaris and Uri. A body of them, to the number of 6000, poured down upon the bridge of Rechenau, of which they took poſſeſſion. Maſſena haſtened to ſtrengthen his left, which had been conſiderably ſhaken by this laſt attack. He reinforced Lucienſteig, and detached Menars againſt the armed peaſantry. This latter diſlodged them from Rechenau, and purſued them to Diſentis, where he came up with their main body, killed 2000 of them, and

diſperſed the reſt. Meanwhile Soult, at the head of another detachment, attacked the Swiſs of the little cantons, on the ſide of the Lake of Schwitz, and forced them to lay down their arms. Another body of 4000 he attacked at Altorf, defeated them, and purſued their remains as far as the Valley of Urſeren, to prevent their getting poſſeſſion of the paſs of St Gothard.

But, after all this, the French in theſe parts found their ſituation precarious; in regard that, after the ſucceſs of the allies in Italy, the Valteline was quite uncovered. The diviſion under General L'Oiſon retreated with difficulty by Chiavenna, leaving part of their artillery behind them; and Lecourbe croſſed rapidly from the Lower Engadin to Bellinzone, thereby ſecuring the paſs of St Gothard, and ſo cutting off the communication between the little cantons and the Swiſs Italian bailliwics, which had alſo riſen in favour of the Auſtrians. A few days after this, Maſſena removed his head-quarters from St Gall to Zurich, and made various manœuvres, with a view to draw off the attention of the Archduke. But that Prince was not to be diverted from his own plan, which was to make himſelf maſter of the Griſons, before he attempted any thing on the Rhine. With this view, he ſent reinforcements to Feldkirch. Bellegarde had followed the French from the Upper Engadin, and advanced to Lenz, where he was joined by a conſiderable body of armed Griſons. With him General Hotze concerted a new plan of attack. The Swiſs, united with the Auſtrians under Hotze, who was their countryman, begged leave to form the vanguard of the column that was to attack Lucienſteig. This fort, ſince it came into the hands of the French, had been

been rendered almoſt impregnable. It was ſituated in a narrow defile, formed by perpendicular rocks, whoſe peaks, on the eaſtern ſide, were joined to the ſteep heights which incloſe the valley, half a league in length, ſhut up by batteries, and cut by a drawbridge. This was the only place that could impede the progreſs of the Auſtrians.

While preparations were making for the attack of this place, Prince Charles, in his head-quarters at Stockach, was informed of the approach of a body of Ruſſians, who were deſtined to act on the Rhine, and had already reached Gallicia. They were a part of 40,000 men furniſhed by the Emperor of Ruſſia, as auxiliaries in Britiſh pay, independent of the army in Italy. General Toſtoi had come, on the 9th of May, to take the Archduke's orders with regard to the march of the columns. The whole number of Ruſſian troops, that had either joined the Auſtrian armies, or were on their way to join them, was eſtimated at 70,000.

At length, on the 12th of the month, all the advanced columns of the Archduke's army began to put themſelves in motion. And on the 14th, General Hotze made the grand attack, by which he gained poſſeſſion of Lucienſteig, and, in effect, of the whole country of the Griſons. He divided his forces into four columns. The firſt was to make a falſe attack on the head of the defile, and threaten the flanks of the entrenchments. The ſecond was to traverſe the mountains above Mayenfield, to deſcend upon the rear, and facilitate the attack in front, which was intended to be the moſt ſerious. The third was to free the Seeviſer Alps. And the fourth, with the artillery and cavalry, to force a

paſſage by the Slapiner-joch. That column which was to attack the rear of the entrenchments, was commanded by General Jellachich, and General Hotze himſelf commanded that which was to make the attack in front. Jellachich could not arrive at the place of his deſtination, till after a moſt laborious march of twelve hours, in which he was greatly aſſiſted by the inhabitants. But the moment he began to make his attack in the rear, General Hotze forced the paſs in front, and advancing to the gate, notwithſtanding a thick fire kept up by the garriſon, blew it up, and entered the fort. A whole demi-brigade, commanded by General Humbert, and amounting to 3000 men, were made priſoners.

After the taking of this fort, the French army retreated in three columns from the Griſons. The right made their retreat by Sargans to Wallenſtadt; the centre paſſed by the defile of Vethis; and the left aſcended the Rhine by Reichnau and Diſentis. This laſt was followed by Bellegarde, who took poſſeſſion of Reichnau and Coire on the 16th, making four companies priſoners. Hotze in the mean time marched with a ſtrong vanguard in purſuit of the right-hand column, which had burnt Sargans in paſſing through it. By the 17th of May, the whole country of the Griſons was evacuated by the French, excepting the narrow valleys bordering upon the ſmall cantons.

The progreſs of the Archduke's army had been furthered by the ſucceſs of Suwarrow, whom the ſuperiority of his forces had enabled to ſend detachments which took poſſeſſion of the valleys, and checked the French troops who were poſted in the defiles of Switzerland. This General had, at this time, four different

rent objects to attend to. In his front he had Moreau, whom he wiſhed to drive out of Italy, before he could be reinforced. On his right, he wiſhed, by penetrating into the valleys, to aſſiſt the movements of the Archduke's left. Behind him, Kray was left with 25,000 men, to beſiege Mantua; while Klenau inveſted Ferrara, and blockaded Bologna. And on his left, he detached General Ott, with a ſtrong diviſion, to ſupport General Klenau, to ſtop the progreſs of Macdonald's army, and to intercept the communication between Moreau and that country.

The laſt-mentioned General, after the evacuation of Milan, made his retreat in three columns. The right-hand column marched from Lodi upon Piacenza; the centre by the road from Milan to Genoa, upon Pavia and Voghera; and the left by Vigevano and Novarra. Moreau himſelf went to Turin, to make preparations for the evacuation of that city, and the defence of the citadel; to take meaſures for quelling inſurrections, and for keeping open his communications, which theſe inſurrections had either cut off or interrupted. On the 7th of May, he removed from Turin, and fixed his head-quarters at Aleſſandria.

Suwarrow, in the mean time, had advanced as far as Pavia, and detached a ſtrong vanguard, under Vukaſſovich, to take poſſeſſion of Novarra, and other places evacuated by the French; with orders to aſcend the Po as far as Turin, and attack Moreau's left wing, in order to divert his attention from his rear. At the ſame time, General Hohenzollern marched upon Piacenza, and, aſcending the right ſide of the Po, forced back the vanguard of the French beyond Voghera. In aid of this movement,

and

and with a view to ſeize upon the paſſages into the country of Genoa, Suwarrow himſelf took poſt at Bobbio, on the road between Piacenza and Genoa.

General Kray, after having made preparations for opening the trenches before Peſchiera, and bombarding the citadel, on the 5th of May, he offered to the garriſon a capitulation, by which they were allowed to march out, upon condition of not ſerving againſt the allies for ſix months. The terms were accepted, and the place was given up to the Auſtrians the next day. They found there ninety cannons and mortars, ſixteen gun-boats equipped, and a great quantity of ammunition and proviſions. After this General Kray aſſembled all his forces round Mantua. The garriſon made various ſallies, but were always repulſed.

On the ſame 5th of May, General Latterman began the ſiege of the Caſtle of Milan, of which the French kept poſſeſſion when they evacuated the town. The ſame day General Kaim opened the trenches before Pizzighitone, which ſurrendered to him after four days. Moreau had taken a ſtrong poſition between Aleſſandria and Valenza, where his army lay entrenched, behind two rivers, the Po and the Tanaro. The Ruſſian General kept cloſe upon him. Tortona was attacked, on the 9th of May, by General Chaſteler, who blew up the gates, under the fire of the caſtle, to which the garriſon had retired. On the 10th, the greateſt part of the allied army paſſed the Scrivia, and encamped at Torre Garafolo. General Karaczay was detached with a corps, to take poſſeſſion of Novi, Serravalle, and Gavi. Theſe movements on the right of the French army were intended to draw Moreau's attention to that ſide, till Suwarrow might, by ſurpriſe, gain a paſſage over the Po,

Po, on his left; and to bring on a general action. This plan was ſeconded by the inhabitants of the adjacent places, who ſuddenly roſe in ſuch force, that they ſet upon a whole battalion, which was marching to join the French army, and diſperſed them.

On the 11th, a vanguard of the allied troops croſſed the Po, and made an attempt againſt the left of Moreau's army, but were repulſed. Next day, 7000 Ruſſians paſſed the river below Valenza, and marched between Aleſſandria and Tortona, with a view to cut the French line. The firſt ſhock of the Ruſſians was ſuſtained by the diviſion under Grenier; but Victor's diviſion attacking them in flank, drove them back; and many of them were killed, or drowned in the river: among the reſt, General Schubarf, who commanded them. Suwarrow now determined to march the main body of his army along the Po, to Turin, in order to diſlodge Moreau from his camp. The French General, probably having information of this movement, threw a bridge over the Bormida, during the night of the 16th; and in the morning paſſed it, with a column of 7000 men; and, after driving in ſome out-poſts, made an attack upon the Ruſſian camp, which had been left under the charge of General Luſignan. This General was at firſt driven from his poſition. But being joined by ſome Ruſſian battalions under Prince Pankrazian, they rallied, and drove the French acroſs their bridge to Aleſſandria.

Finding himſelf unable to preſerve this advantageous poſition, the French General, leaving a garriſon in the citadel of Aleſſandria, evacuated that town and Valenza, and marched his army to Coni, on the 22d. He alſo detached a body of troops, to occupy

Ceva

Ceva and Mendovi; thus to keep open the communication with Genoa. Suwarrow having failed in his plan of ſurrounding the French army in the camp of Aleſſandria, leaving a diviſion to blockade the citadel, marched his army againſt Turin. Having completely inveſted that city, he began to cannonade it on the 27th. The French commander, being ſummoned, refuſed to ſurrender the place; but a bomb having ſet fire to a houſe, near the gate of the Po, the inhabitants, taking advantage of the diſorder, opened the gate to the allies, who thus obtained poſſeſſion of the town; and the French garriſon, conſiſting of 3000 men, retired to the citadel. One part of the allied army occupied the city and environs, while another part formed a camp of obſervation, on the road to Pignerol. Thus, within ten weeks from the commencement of hoſtilities on the Adige, Suwarrow encamped within ſight of the frontiers of France.

But he had an army behind him, againſt which it was neceſſary for him to aſſemble a conſiderable force. General Macdonald, having received orders from Scherer to join the army of Italy, called in all his detachments, left the camp of Caſerta on the 9th of May, and marched to Rome. There he left a garriſon, with orders to retire into the Caſtle of Angelo, if attacked by a ſuperior force. From thence he went to Florence. His firſt diviſion found the country in arms againſt them. Two villages were taken by ſtorm, and almoſt all the inhabitants periſhed. Generals Gaulhier and Miolis, who commanded the French troops in Tuſcany, had made preparations to receive the army of Naples. To which end they formed a camp of obſervation, between Florence and Bologna, cloſing up all the paſſes of the Appenines.

All

All theſe circumſtances made it neceſſary for Suwarrow to exert himſelf, in order to prevent the junction of the two French armies, which might even render his retreat difficult.

With this view he puſhed his ſieges with vigour, that he might bring his forces that were employed in them to the field. That of the Caſtle of Milan had been interrupted, from the neceſſity he had been under of ſending Hohenzollern, who conducted it, to the aſſiſtance of Prince Rohan, who had not been able to maintain himſelf, between the Lakes of Como and Lugano, againſt the ſuperior forces of Lecourbe. But the French being driven back to Switzerland, the Imperial troops were recalled, the trenches were opened before the citadel of Milan, on the 23d of May, and it was ſurrendered by the commander, on condition that his garriſon, conſiſting of 2200 men, ſhould not ſerve for a year againſt the Imperial armies. At the ſame time, the citadel of Ferrara ſurrendered to General Klenau, on the ſame terms. Ravenna, and ſome places of ſmall importance, in the Roman territory, were taken ſoon after.

The ſiege of Mantua was ſtill continued by General Kray, who having repelled a vigorous ſally of the garriſon, on the 19th of May, received orders to draw off his troops, leaving only a number ſufficient to keep up the blockade. Thoſe who were thus drawn off were afterwards joined by other diviſions, which formed a new army, of which he took the command. His firſt object was to drive the French from Bologna, which they defended with vigour; ſenſible of the great importance of retarding the march of the allied army into Tuſcany, and ſo protecting the retreat of Macdonald's army. Already had that General

reached Tuſcany. His vanguard was at Florence, and Leghorn and Lucca had been put in a ſtate of defence, in order to ſecure a retreat, if the junction with Moreau's army could not be effected. General Kray wiſhed to rally his forces, and march againſt Macdonald; but this he could not do, while the Republicans were in poſſeſſion of Bologna.

The operations of the Archduke in Switzerland were not leſs important than thoſe of Suwarrow; nor were they leſs vigorouſly reſiſted by Maſſena, than thoſe of the other were by Moreau; while the nature of the country rendered them more difficult. The French columns had retreated from the Griſons, purſued by Generals Hotze and Bellegarde. On the 22d of May, General Nauendorf, with the vanguard of the Archduke's army, croſſed the Rhine at Schaffhauſen, and took poſt at Andelfingen. At the ſame time, General Hotze croſſed the river, in order to form a junction with Nauendorf, with a view to cover the paſſage of the reſt of the army; as the Archduke wiſhed to concentrate all his forces, before he hazarded a general engagement. To prevent this junction, Maſſena marched on the 25th, and attacked Nauendorf and Hotze about the ſame time. Both engagements were bloody; but the Auſtrians kept their ground in both; and the Archduke attained his object. He transferred his head-quarters to Paradies, and on the 27th he marched upon Winterthur; while Hotze, having driven the French back to the mountain called the Steig-paſs, attacked them there in front. The engagement had laſted from day-break till noon, when the Archduke came up, and the poſt was carried, though ſtrongly fortified, and obſtinately defended. The junction of Hotze with the Archduke

duke was then effected at Winterthur; where the head-quarters were eſtabliſhed.

General Bellegarde, on the ſide of the mountains, having ſecured the paſſage of St Gothard, his force was augmented, by the ardour of the inhabitants of the little cantons, once more to take arms againſt the French. He had taken poſſeſſion of the canton of Glaris, and menaced Lucerne ſo ſeriouſly, that the members of the Helvetic Government withdrew to Berne. He had alſo marched a body of troops to Schwitz; but could not maintain himſelf in that poſition, againſt Lecourbe, who occupied a ſtrong poſt at Waſen.

Maſſena, finding that the Archduke preſſed upon his flanks, took a new poſition behind the Glatt, on the 18th of May; but ſtill haraſſed on his left, he was obliged to collect his troops into his ſtrong camp at Zurich. Upon this, the Archduke puſhed forward his vanguard to the heights of Regenſberg, and marched a body along the Glatt, within a league and a half of Zurich. Several ſkirmiſhes took place on the following days, between the advanced poſts of the French camp, and the left of the Auſtrian army, which had already taken poſſeſſion of ſeveral villages on the banks of the lake. The Archduke paſſed the Glatt on the 4th of June, and took up his head-quarters at Klotten. Having poſſeſſion of all the heights, he puſhed his advanced poſts within gun-ſhot of the French entrenchments. After reconnoitring their poſition, which was very ſtrong, both by nature and art, he, on the 4th of June, attacked ſome villages in the moſt ſalient parts of their line, which were obſtinately defended, taken and retaken. Next day he bore down upon the entrenchments with his whole

force, which the French defended with obſtinacy, till night put an end to the combat. Orders had been given to renew the attack next morning; but Maſſena evacuated Zurich in the night, and took poſt on Mount Albis, his left flanked by the Rhine, and his right by the Lake of Zug. The Auſtrian head-quarters were eſtabliſhed at Zurich on the 7th.

Moreau's army was too much reduced to enable him to keep up the line of defence from Mount St Gothard to the ſea, parallel to the attacks made upon him; he therefore fell back on his right, to cover, with what forces he had left, the Ligurian Republic, and to preſerve the barrier of the Appennines; ſo as to give Macdonald the means of retreat. From his camp at Coni, he detached a diviſion, under General Victor, to croſs the Ligurian Republic, and to join the army of Naples, from which he was nearly fifty leagues diſtant, with a view to enable Macdonald to act on the offenſive, ſo as he might reach Genoa. The French had retaken Mondovi, and blockaded Ceva; but General Vukaſſovich relieved both theſe places.

Suwarrow, after the taking of Turin, ſent ſome diviſions of his army into the valleys of Suſa, Morienne, Auſt, and Lucerne, where the Vaudois had taken arms in favour of the French; and, with the reſt, he marched in perſon againſt Moreau, who, leaving a ſtrong garriſon in Coni, withdrew on the 7th of June to the Col de Tende. In the mean time, the ſieges of Tortona, Aleſſandria, and Turin, were puſhed on with great vigour. The Archduke, having now nothing to fear on his left, had diſpatched General Bellegarde, with the greateſt part of his diviſion, to the aſſiſtance of the army in Italy; which, though

ſuperior

ſuperior to the French army in number, had ſo many enterprizes in hand, that it could not eaſily finiſh them all. That General paſſed through Milan on the 6th of June, with eighteen battalions of foot, and 3500 horſe, and marched to Tortona.

General Macdonald, having arrived at Florence, as has been ſaid, joined the troops under Montrichard, which occupied Tuſcany, on the 26th of May. His army, after he had called in all the garriſons, and after General Victor had joined him, is ſuppoſed to have amounted to little more than 40,000 effective men. His firſt care was to clear the paſſes on each ſide the Appennines. General Ott had got poſſeſſion of the important poſt of Pontremoli, which is the point of communication between Tuſcany and the Ligurian Republic. General Kray was ſuperintending the ſiege of Mantua, and preſſing the evacuation of the Bologneſe. The Imperialiſts had driven the French from the poſts of Ferli and Cervia, ſurpriſed Fort Lago, taken poſſeſſion of Ceſſena and Rimini, and were beſieging Fort Urbin; but ſtill they were too weak to enter Tuſcany, and act offenſively againſt Macdonald.

This French General firſt ſtrengthened his right wing, commanded by Montrichard, who, after detaching a brigade to occupy Bologna, repulſed General Klenau, and raiſed the ſiege of Fort Urbin. On the left, the Poliſh legion had orders to march upon Sarzona and Pontremoli, and take this latter place from the Auſtrians. Macdonald left Ruſca's diviſion at Florence, to join him at a later period, and tranſported his head-quarters to Lucca, where he was in the beginning of June, and could obtain information concerning

concerning the ſtate of the allied forces, as well as concert his plan of operation with General Moreau.

Moreau's army at the Col de Tende, after Victor's diviſion had left it, amounted to little more than 15,000, till it was ſtrengthened by ſome battalions which were ſent him by the way of Nice. Theſe he ſent to Genoa by the way of Oneglia, while himſelf, filing off by the right, entered the Ligurian Republic, having his flank covered with the Appennines, all the paſſes of which were in his poſſeſſion, and took ſome advantageous poſitions towards the ſources of the Tanaro. He pretended to have no other view than to receive ſuccours by ſea, and to wait the arrival of the army of Naples. He filled the public papers with falſe accounts of the landing of 15,000 men at Vado, by a fleet from Toulon, and other fables of the ſame kind. By theſe means he, for a time, ſucceeded in concealing from the allies the plan he had concerted with Macdonald, which was, to raiſe the ſiege of Mantua, force Kray to fall back upon the Adige, relieve the citadels of Tortona and Aleſſandria, and, re-uniting the two armies, to march againſt Suwarrow with ſuperior forces.

On the 8th of June, Macdonald left his camp and marched to Modena. His left marched upon Reggio, and his right wing had already raiſed the ſiege of Fort Urbino, after two very warm engagements with General Klenau. And their orders were, to turn Modena, and paſs the Tanaro between that city and the Po. The vanguard of the centre came up with General Hohenzollern's outpoſts on the 10th, and drove them back within two miles of Modena. Next day a very ſmart ſkirmiſh took place between the cavalry which both Generals had ſent out to cover reconnoitring

noitring parties. At firſt the Auſtrian cavalry was driven back, but was ſupported by the regiment of Preiſs, who charged the French cavalry with fixed bayonets. The following day, the 12th, Macdonald made another attack, when a very bloody engagement took place, the cavalry and infantry mingling together. In this battle Macdonald was wounded, and General Frolich killed; but the Auſtrians were forced to abandon Modena, which was pillaged by the French. The French being in poſſeſſion of the left ſide of the Secchio, Hohenzollern was cut off from Reggio; but he retreated to Mirandola. The brave regiment of Prieſs, which formed the rear-guard, being different times ſurrounded, loſt many men, but ſtill cut its way through the enemy.

General Klenau fell back upon Ferrara. Kray, who had drawn off the artillery with which he beſieged Mantua, broke down all the bridges on the Po, and poſted himſelf on the left ſide with 10,000 troops, and ſome thouſand armed peaſants, to prevent Macdonald's paſſage. But the French General, from whatever cauſe, ſaved him the trouble. He ſuddenly marched with his whole army, entered Parma on the 14th of the month, and Piacenza on the 15th, and on the 16th began his attacks upon the citadel of that place.

General Ott, who had only ſeven or eight thouſand men, retreated before Macdonald's vanguard, expecting to be reinforced by General Melas. That General, as ſoon as informed of Moreau's intention, marched for Aleſſandria. Bellegarde, too, came up with his diviſion; while Suwarrow himſelf, leaving Kaim to continue the ſiege of the citadel of Turin, haſtened away, with all the forces he could collect.

Vukaſſovich,

Vukaſſovich, who was ſtationed between Ceva and Mondovi, received orders to haraſs Moreau's rear, and to ſend a detachment to Ermea on the road to Oneglia. Thus a great part of the allied army was collected between Piacenza and Tortona, in order to prevent the junction of the two French armies; and not a moment was to be loſt on either ſide.

General Macdonald marched from Piacenza on the 17th, to a village ſix miles diſtant, whither General Ott had retreated, and made an attack upon him. General Melas, with his vanguard, came up to Ott's aſſiſtance at the beginning of the action. The French were repulſed in this attack. The Auſtrians maintained their poſition till Suwarrow came up with a ſtrong body of Ruſſian troops. The engagement then became general, and laſted till night, when the French retired, and took their poſitions between the rivers Tidone and Trebbia.

On the 18th, Suwarrow made diſpoſitions for a general engagement. He divided his army into four columns, three of which were Ruſſians, and the fourth was made up of the two diviſions of Ott and Frolich. As many of the troops had a fatiguing march, it was neceſſary to give them time to breathe. By this means the attack was not made till five o'clock in the evening. Macdonald's army ſtood ready in order of battle to receive it, and terrible was the ſhock that enſued. The French were beaten after an obſtinate reſiſtance, and much blood ſhed on both ſides.

Macdonald, however, did not retreat to Piacenza, but only withdrew behind the Trebbia, reſolving to make one effort more againſt Suwarrow. He knew that many of the allied troops were worn out with fatigue, and therefore he made a ſudden attack upon them the

the next day. At firſt, he beat back all the outpoſts on the Trebbia, ſent one of his columns acroſs the Po, while another paſſed the Trebbia, to turn the right flank of the allied army. General Melas, with the Auſtrian cavalry, ſuſtained the firſt attack, and the carnage was dreadful. The whole country, between the Tidone and the Trebbia, was ſtrewed with the dead. The laſt-named river was choaked up with corpſes. The Poliſh legion, ſurrounded by Ruſſians, formed themſelves into a hollow ſquare, and fought till they were almoſt totally deſtroyed. At laſt, Macdonald was forced to repaſs the Trebbia, having ſuſtained a third defeat. We have no particular account of the numbers killed, on either ſide, in theſe engagements. The allies took ſeven pieces of cannon, four French Generals, and upwards of 10,000 priſoners. Yet, Suwarrow, when complimented on his victory, is ſaid to have anſwered, in the words of the ancient General, 'Another ſuch, and we are ruined.'

During the night, Macdonald entered Piacenza; but as he was purſued by the allied army, he was obliged to leave behind him 3000 wounded men, who fell into the hands of his purſuers. He retreated in two columns; of which one followed the great road to Parma, and the other went along the foot of the mountains. After taking poſt at Fornovo, he aſcended the valley of the Tanaro, and took the road to Seſtri, with a view to join Moreau.

While Suwarrow was defeating Macdonald on the Trebbia, Moreau marched out from Genoa, with a freſh army of 25,000 men. He attacked the Auſtrian diviſion under General Bellegarde, and forced them to retreat acroſs the Bormida, and raiſed the blockade of Tortona. Suwarrow, hearing of this,

left the purſuit of Macdonald's army to General Ott, and led the ſtrongeſt part of his army againſt Moreau. While on his march, he received the news of the ſurrender of the citadel of Turin, which happened on the 20th. Moreau, finding himſelf unable to contend with the allied army in the field, was forced, after another engagement with Bellegarde and Kaim, to fall back upon Genoa. Thus, at the end of June, almoſt the whole of Italy, and one half of Switzerland, was in the hands of the allies. And, for a ſhort time, there was an interruption of carnage, while both armies waited for reinforcements.

Macdonald continued his retreat into Tuſcany. One of his columns took the road of Modena, which he ſurpriſed on the 23d; and the other marched by Tornovio. The right column threw reinforcements into Bologna and Fort Urbino. And, on the 27th, he reſumed his former poſitions, at Lucca and Piſtoia. General Victor's diviſion, with that under Lapoype, occupied the paſſes of the Apennines; ſo that Macdonald had this paſſage open before him. The Auſtrian Generals, Ott, Klenau, and Hohenzollern, who were ſent in purſuit of the French army, ſoon forced them to evacuate Modena and Bologna. Fort Urbino ſurrendered to General Ott, after a fortnight. Macdonald, now finding himſelf unable to contend with the Imperial forces in theſe parts, determined to evacuate Tuſcany. In the beginning of July, he ſent off his artillery to Leghorn, intending to tranſport it from thence to Genoa by ſea. He left Florence on the 8th of the month, broke up his camp, and led his army, which was now reduced to thirteen or fourteen thouſand men, by the way of Sarzana. But ſo ſlow and painful was the march, that it was towards the

end

end of July before the head of the column reached Genoa.

Tuſcany was immediately taken poſſeſſion of by the allies, together with the inhabitants of Arezzo, who had riſen in great numbers againſt the French. Klenau entered Florence the ſame day that Macdonald left it. The people immediately roſe, deſtroyed every mark of Republican domination, and reſtored the enſigns of the old Government. General D'Argubet, who had the command of the French garriſon left in Leghorn, received orders to evacuate it on the 18th. He entered into a capitulation with the Tuſcan General Lavillette, by which he ſecured the retreat of his own garriſon, and that of Porto Ferrajo; but was obliged to leave behind him all the heavy artillery, the camp-equipage, and the remainder of the ſpoils of Italy, which were to have been tranſported by ſea, had time allowed. Piſa and Lucca were likewiſe evacuated. And Macdonald's army, when all collected at Genoa, ſcarcely amounted to 18,000, though, a month before, it was 30,000.

Suwarrow, having joined Bellegarde, and called in the corps of Kaim and Vukaſſovich, now marched againſt Moreau; who, having evacuated his poſt at Novi, retired into the Ligurian territory, and employed himſelf in reinforcing his poſts at the outlets of the valleys; waiting in his camp, at Sarena, for the arrival of the remnant of Macdonald's army. The main army of the allies having taken a poſition to cover the attacks of Tortona and Aleſſandria, Bellegarde was charged with the regular ſiege of the latter. The trenches were opened before it, and the firſt parallel being finiſhed, on the 14th of July, and twenty-one batteries ready to open, General Gar-

danne, the French commander, was ſummoned to ſurrender, but refuſed. After ſix days, the ſecond parallel being finiſhed, the covered way taken, and every thing ready for the aſſault, he thought it time to capitulate; and the garriſon, conſiſting of 2600 men, became priſoners of war. Here Suwarrow fixed his head-quarters. And Moreau, unable to attempt the relief of the place, contented himſelf with taking ſuch poſitions as might ſecure his junction with Macdonald, and the arrival of the reinforcements which he expected. For this purpoſe, he had extended his lines, from the Genoeſe territory to the frontiers of France; when he was obliged to reſign the command of the army to General Joubert, whom a new revolution at Paris had made his ſucceſſor.

Suwarrow, after the taking of Aleſſandria, marched a part of his army anew into Piedmont, inveſted Coni, attacked Feneſtrelles, and ſent General Haddick, with 12,000 men, to penetrate into the Vallais. But that which moſt engaged the attention of all parties, at this time, was the ſiege of Mantua, which the victory on the Trebbia had enabled General Kray to carry on without interruption. Nothing was ſpared to haſten its ſurrender. The quantity of artillery was augmented, the beſieging army was reinforced, and the country-people laboured at the works. The garriſon conſiſted of 10,000 men, commanded by General Latour Foiſſac, who had been an engineer under the old Government. General Kray attacked the place on the ſouthern ſide, and at firſt drove in the out-poſts. The trenches were opened during the night of the 13th of July, oppoſite to the Fauxbourg du Thé, which is ſeparated from the main land by an arm of the Mincio. The fire from the town was very briſk,

briſk, but could not prevent the firſt and ſecond parallels from being finiſhed, and the batteries erected in leſs than a week.

This principal attack was ſeconded by others, directed againſt the forts on the other ſide of the lake, which were detached from the body of the place. The principal ſluice being broken down, the draining of the waters facilitated the operations of the beſiegers. On the 25th, an attack was made on the entrenchments between Cereſe du Thé, which were carried ſword in hand. Next day the French evacuated Fort St George. They likewiſe abandoned the horn-work at the gate Pradella, after ſpiking the cannon. Here the allies made a lodgement, from whence they commanded the body of the place. The garriſon were, by this time, much reduced, the greater part of their officers in the hoſpitals, their batteries ſilenced, and their works no longer tenible. In theſe circumſtances, General Kray offered a capitulation, which the French General accepted. The garriſon accordingly marched out on the 30th, with the honours of war, and grounded their arms on the Glacis. They were afterwards to be conducted to the frontiers of France, but not to ſerve till exchanged. The commanding officer and his ſtaff were to be kept priſoners three months; after which they were to be allowed to return to France on their parole, not to ſerve till exchanged.

While theſe things were tranſacted in Italy, little of importance took place in Switzerland. The two armies were ſo equally balanced, that little could be effected. The Archduke, on the one part, attacked the poſt of Mount Albis, on the 8th of June, without ſucceſs; and, on the other ſide, Maſſena attacked that

that part of the Auſtrian army which was before Zurich, on the 15th, but was repulſed. Towards the end of that month, the Archduke, underſtanding that ſome troops were coming up to reinforce Maſſena, ſent orders to General Stzarray, who commanded on the right ſide of the Rhine, to haraſs the French poſts in that quarter. The French diviſions under General Grand were driven back from Offenburg to Kehl, and ſome other troops in that neighbourhood were forced to retire from their poſts. Maſſena, having put Baſil in a ſtate of defence, reinforced General Grand, and enabled him to act offenſively. The Auſtrians poſted at Reſchen were vigorouſly attacked, on the 4th of July, and driven beyond Oberkirch. A deſperate action took place between a regiment of huſſars, and ſome companies of French grenadiers. General Meerffeldt was attacked by Grand on the 6th, and driven from Offenburg. On the 19th, Meerffeldt, having been reinforced, attacked the French in his turn, and forced them to give up all that they had gained. Several ſuch ſkirmiſhes happened in other places, but without advantage to either party.

The ſeveral armies now took ſome time to recruit their forces, and digeſt their plans. Maſſena, poſted on Mount Albis, prevented the Archduke from advancing beyond Zurich; while Moreau, guarding the paſſes of the Apennines, and covering Genoa, prevented Suwarrow from invading France. As a new army of Ruſſians was on their march towards Switzerland, the French Government conſidered that as the poſt of greateſt danger. They therefore ſent thither the greateſt part of the troops of the interior, together with the new levies; and thus formed an army

army on the Rhine, ſufficient to oppoſe that which the Archduke was about to aſſemble. But theſe reinforcements were not acquainted with a mountain-war, and therefore were unequal to the troops of the Archduke, who, mixed with Tyrolians and Swiſs, who were bred among the mountains, had already fought with ſucceſs in that country.

Maſſena, though he had received orders from the Directory to reſume offenſive operations, continued to delay, till he incurred their diſpleaſure. At length, on the 12th of Auguſt, he made an attack upon the Imperialiſts. He began by ſome ſkirmiſhes between the out-poſts. Next morning, under covert of a thick fog, he ſent a column acroſs the Limmut, who carried one of the main guards, and then penetrated into the camp of the cavalry, where a regiment of dragoons, and ſome ſquadrons of huſſars, ſuſtained a very heavy conflict. This ſurpriſe ſpread an alarm in Zurich; and the Archduke diſpatched ſome troops through the city, who, attacking the French in their turn, while two batteries played upon their flanks, obliged them to return acroſs the river.

During this attack, all the columns on the right, on either ſide of the lake of Lucerne, amounting, in whole, to about 30,000 men, moved at once, and attacked the principal poſts of the Auſtrians. The French diviſion under General Chabran ſurpriſed the poſts on the weſt ſide of the lake of Zurich, and drove them back; then aſcending the heights, they turned and attacked an Auſtrian corps, which occupied a ſtrong poſition between Lachen and Cinſidlen, having been poſted there to cover the cantons of Schwitz and Uri; and that corps was almoſt wholly deſtroyed, taken, or diſperſed.

diſperſed. General Jellachich, who commanded the poſts on the lake of Zurich, was compelled to deſert them, and, leaving the canton of Glaris expoſed, retreat upon the centre of the army.

Lecourbe, who had orders to repulſe the corps of General Jellachich and Simpſchen, and take poſſeſſion of their poſt at Schwitz, divided his troops into four columns. The firſt, under General Boivin, attacked the poſts before Schwitz, on the morning of the 15th, diſlodged the Imperialiſts, and obliged them to fall back upon Glaris. Lecourbe himſelf led another column againſt the poſt of Brunen, in the lake of the four cantons. While the body of his men marched along the right ſide of the lake, himſelf, with a reſerve of grenadiers, embarked in a fleet of boats, and ſailed up the lake. While his aid-du-camp ſuſtained a ſmart action at the bridge of Mulken, which he carried, Lecourbe, with his grenadiers, continued his courſe, in order to ſupport General Perſon, who, with a third column, was to make the attack at Altorf. After ſundry ſkirmiſhes by the way, they reached this poſt together, and General Simpſchen was obliged to evacuate it in the evening, and retreat by the valley of Schellenen, after breaking down the bridges on the Reuſs. General Loiſon, with the fourth column, marched upon ice and ſnow, till he came to the ſmall fort of the Meyenthal, the only approach to which is by a ſingle path, between two perpendicular rocks. The fort was defended by 300 men, and the path leading to it was ſwept by artillery and muſquetry; yet the grenadiers inſiſted on being led on to the attack, and it was taken by ſtorm.

Lecourbe, having diſperſed a few Auſtrians, who obſtructed

obſtructed his progreſs, haſtened to aſcend the Reuſs, and meeting with Loiſon, they united their forces, and marched to meet General Gudin, who had been ſent to make an attack upon St Gothard. They marched on till they came to the firſt poſts of Auſtrians, at the famous paſs called the Devil's Bridge. They were driven back to their entrenchments, which were flanked, on one ſide by the Reuſs, and by inacceſſible rocks on the other. The French expected to paſs the bridge pell-mell with them; but, all of a ſudden, as ſoon as the Auſtrians had paſſed, the middle of the bridge fell down, and the French grenadiers fell back, under a heavy fire from the oppoſite ſide. The Devil's Bridge was repaired during the night, and in the morning General Gudin, deſcending St Gothard by the valley of Urſeren, made his appearance on the right ſide. The ſame ſucceſs had accompanied him as the other columns of Lecourbe's army. And thus the French became maſters of St Gothard, and the whole courſe of the Reuſs, and the left wing of the Archduke's army was wholly routed and diſperſed. The Auſtrians, retreating from Urſeren towards Diſentis, rallied on the mountains of the Criſpalt. Lecourbe, fearing leſt they ſhould eſtabliſh themſelves in that ſtrong poſition, marched to attack them. This laſt engagement was extremely bloody. The Auſtrians repulſed ſeveral attacks; but were at laſt obliged to yield to numbers, and retreated to Diſentis.

It was preciſely at this time, that a new column of Ruſſian troops, amounting to 26,000, arrived at Schaffhauſen, under the command of General Rinſi Korſakow. And on the 19th of Auguſt, the Archduke

ſent them, with General Hotze, to ſtop the progreſs of the French.

The ſame day when the French had ſuch ſucceſs in Switzerland, a ſtill greater triumph attended the arms of the allies in Italy. Since Joubert had taken the command of the French army there, Macdonald had returned to France; but Moreau continued with Joubert, to aſſiſt him with his counſel. Having reconnoitred all their poſitions, they reſolved to make a ſtrong effort to march their army into the plains, and to maintain themſelves there, after forcing Suwarrow to raiſe the ſiege of the citadel of Tortona. After detaching from his left and centre, ſtrong advanced guards, and taken advantageous poſitions, in the valleys of Orba and the Bormida, Joubert formed on that ſide three columns of attack. A fourth column, which was by far the ſtrongeſt, was to march by the defiles of the Rochetta, and raiſe the ſiege of Tortona. This column was commanded by St Cyr, to whom Moreau and Deſolles acted as guides. Meantime the French army had been much augmented by thoſe reinforcements that ſignalized the arrival of Joubert among them.

Suwarrow had aſſembled the greateſt part of his army in the plain between Orba and Serivia, where General Kray, with the army which had beſieged Mantua, was expected to join him. As ſoon as Kray arrived, Suwarrow determined to attack the French, in order to diſconcert their plans. And he did ſo on the 15th. The action began between the right wing of the allies, commanded by General Kray, and the left of the French army, where Joubert himſelf commanded. Scarcely had the battle commenced, when the French General, as he led on a charge of infantry,

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was ſtruck with a ball, which pierced his heart, and he inſtantly expired, crying out, *Forward, forward.*

It would ſerve no good end to attempt a deſcription of the various evolutions and manœuvres that took place during this terrible encounter. The firſt attack was made at five o'clock in the morning, and continued for ſeveral hours, when General Kray found himſelf obliged to retreat. At the ſame time, the Ruſſians attacked the enemy's centre, and they alſo were repulſed. Both Auſtrians and Ruſſians returned to the charge, and made a ſecond attempt to break the line of the French; but ſtill they kept their poſition. At length General Melas, with ſixteen battalions of Auſtrian infantry, having gained the heights of Novi, attacked the enemy's right wing, and ſoon drove them back. Purſuing his advantage, he got poſſeſſion of Novi, and turned upon the flank of their centre. Being ſeconded in this motion by the Ruſſians, he ſucceeded in breaking the French line; and they retreated in great diſorder, purſued by the whole army, about five in the evening. The allies took four Generals and 4000 men priſoners, with thirty pieces of cannon, and fifty-ſeven tumbrils. Their loſs in killed and wounded was nearly 5000. That of the enemy was ſtill more conſiderable.

The French army retreated during the night, to the Apennines. They afterwards rallied by degrees, and took their former poſitions. General Moreau went to Geneva, and preſſed Championet to go and take the command; to which he was ſoon after named by the Directory. In the mean time, this General had the command of another army, called the Army of the Alps, with which he had orders to

join Joubert. And he had made ſucceſsful attacks upon ſeveral poſts of the allies, on the frontier of the Alps, and of Piedmont, on the ſame day when the bloody battle of Novi was fought.

The principal advantage derived from that battle by the allies was the ſurrender of Tortona. It had entered into a capitulation, by which it was to be delivered up to the allies after ten days, if, in that time, it received no ſuccour. After the battle, Suwarrow detached General Kray, with a part of his diviſion, to ſupport the Archduke's left wing, or, if it were too late, to re-eſtabliſh its poſitions, and, at leaſt, to prevent the entrance of the French into Italy on that ſide. Then, leaving General Melas to watch the motions of the French army, the Ruſſian General marched with his centre towards Aſti, to prevent the junction of Championet with the army lately under Joubert, and to cover the ſiege of Coni.

Another French army was already aſſembled on the Rhine; between Mentz and Manheim. Moreau was appointed to command it; but, till he arrived, it was under the orders of General Muller. Its object was to draw off from the right ſide of the Rhine, ſuch reſources as the Imperial army might have found in thoſe parts. Muller eſtabliſhed his head-quarters at Manheim, on the 25th of Auguſt, and his troops took poſſeſſion of Heidelberg, on the 26th, after diſlodging a body of Auſtrian huſſars. At the ſame time, Baraguy d'Hilliers, who commanded the left of the army of the Rhine, left Mentz, with a corps which had been drawn from the garriſons of that place and of Ehrenbreitſtein. He divided them into two parts; the firſt marched upon Frankfort, where he raiſed a large contribution, and the other upon Aſchaffenburg.

burg. Then, paſſing the Mein, he reached Hadelberg on the 1ſt of September, where he joined Muller's diviſion. Theſe Generals had puſhed their advanced guards as far as Heilbron, where they deſtroyed ſome magazines; but were ſoon obliged to retreat, on the aſſembling of a body of Imperial troops, between Heilbron and Ludwiſsbury.

On the firſt news of the movements of the French towards Swabia, the Archduke detached from Schaffhauſen eight battalions of infantry, to the aſſiſtance of the people of that country, who, enraged by the cruelties which they had formerly ſuffered from the French, and invited by the proclamations of the Elector of Mentz, had raiſed what was called the landſturm for the defence of their houſes and families. One third of the inhabitants were always under arms, and, after continuing eight days, were relieved by another third, ſo that they were all in the field by turns. Troops of the line were mixed with them, in the proportion of one man to ten, in order to inſtruct them in the military exerciſe. The Baron D'Albini had put himſelf at their head, and uniting themſelves with the troops ſent by the Archduke, they routed a party of French near Seligenſtadt. Albini gave notice to the commander of Mentz, that if he ſuffered any of theſe German national guards to be ſhot, he would make repriſals upon ſuch of the national guards of France as ſhould fall into his hands.

Yet the French, during this incurſion, acted with their uſual barbarity. Not ſatisfied with threatenings againſt ſuch as had taken arms, plundered the villages, and reduced Sinzheim to aſhes. Muller, having aſſembled his army, to the amount of 18,000, inveſted Philipſburg on the 3d of September, and, having

having firſt taken meaſures to ſecure his retreat, began to bombard it on the 7th. The garriſon was commanded by the Rhinegrave of Salm.

Prince Charles had already reſigned the command of the allied army in Switzerland to General Hotze, and relieved moſt of the Auſtrian diviſions at Zurich by Ruſſian troops. Maſſena, taking advantage of theſe changes, preſſed more cloſely upon the left of the allies. He made an attack upon the Swiſs legions commanded by M. de Roverea, but without effect. Another attack upon the poſts of Uznach and Glaris, iſſued only in the French being enabled to take more advantageous poſitions. Theſe menaces on the rear of his army made no change in the meaſures of the Archduke. He continued his movements on the right flank, and croſſed the Rhine with a conſiderable body of Auſtrian troops. And on the 4th of September, had his head-quarters at Donawſchingen, from whence General Sezarray had marched to the relief of Philipſburg. Theſe arrangements were not merely intended for the relief of Swabia, and for reſtraining the operations of the French on the left of the Rhine; a new partition of the allied armies was about to take place, and a new plan of operation to be adopted. The whole of the Ruſſian auxiliary army had arrived in Switzerland; General Kray, with his diviſion, had marched back to Milan; the corps of the Prince of Conde was on its march to Schaffhauſen, and the Archduke was ſoon at the head of an army of 60,000 men in Swabia. Conſidering Switzerland as the point where the French had collected the greater part of their force, the Archduke made diſpoſitions to act on the flanks, chiefly on the left flank of their vaſt and formidable poſition.

poſition. With that view, he prepared to turn, on the ſide of Italy and Alſace, that maſs of mountains, where his numerous cavalry could neither act nor find ſubſiſtence.

The bombardment of Philipſburg continued for five days and five nights. On the third day, which was the 10th of the month, the beſiegers had made an attempt to ſcale the entrenchments, but the Rhinegrave repulſed them with loſs, and continued to defend the town, when, excepting a few houſes, it was reduced to a heap of aſhes, till, upon the arrival of General Stzarray's diviſion, the French were compelled to raiſe the ſiege on the 13th, and retreat by Waghauſel. On the 15th, they evacuated Heidelberg, and continued their retreat by the bridge of Manheim. On reaching the left ſide of the river, they were parted into three diviſions. One, of about 6000 men, filed off to Mentz. Another, of nearly the ſame number, continued to occupy the entrenchments about Manheim, and the works of the place, while the reſt of the army marched to Spires and Germerſheim.

About this time, the Ruſſian Emperor declared war againſt Spain, on account of its alliance with the French, and the aſſiſtance given it. About this time alſo, happened the death of the Pope Pius VI. When victory began to appear on the ſide of the allies in Italy, the French Directory ſent him orders to leave Tuſcany. The danger of his removal to Cagliari was ſubſtantiated by a conſultation of phyſicians; but the Directory, much leſs ſcrupulous, ordered him to be tranſported acroſs the Alps; and he was kept a priſoner, firſt in the fortreſs of Briancon, and afterwards at Valence, where he died on the 29th of Auguſt.

guſt. A little linen, and ſome cloaths, was all that was left of his former ſplendour. Theſe he bequeathed to the companions of his misfortune. But the conſtituted authorities of Valence, with the feelings and the juſtice of true Republicans, would not permit his will to be executed, declaring that all his property belonged to the French nation.

A month ſcarce elapſed after the death of the Pope, when the late ſeat of his government fell into the hands of the allies. Macdonald, in his retreat, had left about 3500 French in Rome. His defeat on the Trebbia was the ſignal of inſurrection againſt the French in the Roman ſtate. The city being ſurrounded by the inſurgents, all communication from without was cut off. At the ſame time, the Government was diſorganized. The ſoldiers were without bread, without ſhoes, and without pay, and the magazines without arms to ſuſtain a ſiege. At length, Bertholin, the French ambaſſador, found it neceſſary to lay aſide his dictatorial tone. The conſular power was ſuſpended; a committee was choſen to manage public affairs, partly Roman, and partly French. The city was put under military law, and the garriſon were under the command of General Garnier.

The inſurgents of Tuſcany joined thoſe of the Roman territory, and inveſted Rome on one ſide, while thoſe of Naples, aided by the troops of that country, blockaded it on the other; and their numbers were daily increaſing. The garriſon made an excurſion into the country, as far as Viterto, but were repulſed. At length Garnier reſolved to attack the inſurgents, which he did on the 8th of Auguſt; but, unable to make any impreſſion, was obliged to retreat. This encouraged the aſſailants, who preſſed ſo cloſely, that

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it was reſolved to ſend out all the women and children. At laſt, the Roman national guard joining themſelves to the French, it was reſolved to make another attack, on the 22d of the month. The Neapolitans and inſurgents were aſſaulted on three points, near Freſcati; the entrenchments were taken, and the army put to flight. The French took twenty pieces of cannon, ſome colours, and a quantity of ſtores, and returned to the city, leaving the fields covered with dead bodies.

It was by ſome papers, which fell into the hands of the French on this occaſion, that they firſt learned the ſtate of the armies in Italy, and their own dangerous ſituation. A body of Auſtrians had taken poſſeſſion of Civita Caſtellana; the Neapolitans and inſurgents rallied again at Freſcati; a diviſion of Ruſſians were on the march againſt the city; a Britiſh ſquadron blocked up Civita Vecchia, and ſummoned Rome to ſurrender. The council of war determined upon a negotiation with the Engliſh, who offered the ſame terms that had been granted to Gaeta. The capitulation was ſigned by Captain Trowbridge and the French General. The garriſon were ſhipped for France; the Neapolitan army entered Rome on the 30th of September; the trees of liberty were cut down, and burnt; the arms of the Republic deſtroyed; and the Neapolitan flag hoiſted on the caſtle of St Angelo.

By the new plan which the allies had adopted, Suwarrow was to command a great Ruſſian army in Switzerland. On his left, in Italy, was an Auſtrian army, commanded by Generals Kray and Melas. And on his right, the Archduke was to command the Imperial army upon the Rhine. The Archduke

had fulfilled his part of the plan; but the execution of it on the part of Suwarrow was attended with much difficulty. The centre of his army was at Aſti on the 1ſt of September. His left wing occupied Novi, covered Tortona, and ſtretched towards Bochetta. And his right extended to the Po, towards Turin. Two Ruſſian diviſions were poſted in the environs of Spigno and Acqui. And the poſts at the entrance of the valleys of Piedmont had been reinforced.

Championet had continued actively to carry on a war of poſts. He had entered Suſa with one column; another had taken poſſeſſion of the town and valley of Aoſta; after obliging the Auſtrians to fall back to the fort of Bard. And while he ſeemed to meditate an attack on the ſide of Coni, he forced various poſts, and penetrated as far as Pignerol. Moreau, having maintained his poſitions againſt the attacks of Klenau, had concentrated his forces in the neighbourhood of Savona, and made diſpoſitions for advancing.

Suwarrow began his march on the 8th of September. His firſt column, under General Roſenberg, directed their march by Novarra, in order to paſs Mount St Gothard. Moreau, having intelligence of this, ſallied, on the 9th, from his poſition, with a body of men, between twenty and five and twenty thouſand, forming three columns. General Kray marched, with a part of his army, to meet him, and a bloody engagement enſued; in which Moreau was repulſed with conſiderable loſs, and obliged to fall back to his former poſition.

The citadel of Tortona having ſurrendered to Suwarrow on the 11th, according to the proviſional capitulation

pitulation formerly entered into, he took a public farewell of the Auſtrian army, and marched off towards Switzerland, with the rear-guard of the Ruſſians. General Kray's army then marched firſt to Aleſſandria, and then towards Coni, and took ſuch a poſition as was proper for oppoſing Championet, and preventing his junction with Moreau, who was about to cede to him the command of his army in the Ligurian territory. Championet, by the help of ſome manœuvres, which threatened Turin, and the right flank of the Auſtrian army, marched in force to the entrance of the valley of the Stura, and obliged General Gotteſheim to give up the two poſts of Foſſano and Savigliano, which he guarded with 6000 men; but was ſoon obliged to give them up in his turn. On the 18th, General Kray left his camp at Bra, divided his army into two columns; and while himſelf marched at the head of one of them againſt Foſſano, General Melas led the other to attack Savigliano. The French were driven from the laſt-mentioned place, they evacuated the other during the night, and retreated upon Maira with conſiderable loſs. Thus did General Kray cover the march of the Ruſſians, who were haſtening to the paſſes of Mount St Gothard.

Championet now, leaving to General Duheſme the command in thoſe parts, went to receive from Moreau that of the army of Italy, which now comprehended that of the Alps, which he had commanded before. A few days before his arrival at Genoa, that city was put in a ſtate of ſiege by the French Generals, the government was ſuſpended, and made ſubordinate to military authority, becauſe the inhabitants had given ſome evidence that they found the French yoke too heavy.

The army with which Suwarrow first entered Italy, though it had been reinforced, in the month of July, with 10,000 men, did not now amount in all to more than 20,000. With these, this old General, having ascended the valley of the Levantine, took possession of the post of Airolo, and the next day of St Gothard. Being joined by General Auffenberg at Steig, and assisted by General Rosenberg towards Urseren, he drove Lecourbe from the valley of the Reuss, and from all the positions which he had so lately taken from the Austrians, with less difficulty than he had apprehended.

Since the army of Prince Korsakow had replaced the Austrian troops at Zurich, these Russians constituted the centre of the allied army in Switzerland. General Hotze, on the left, commanded the division of the Austrians whom the Archduke had left behind him, and covered the enttance of the Grisons. On the right, General Nauendorff's division was posted opposite to Baden, and flanked by the Rhine. The whole force of the allies in Switzerland, previous to the arrival of Suwarrow, was 59,000. The French army under Massena, which extended from St Gothard to Baden, amounted to almost 80,000, including a division that occupied the entrenchments at Basil, and another posted in the Vallais.

From the time that Lecourbe had succeeded in his attacks upon the left of the allied army, Massena had meditated a general attack upon their whole line. And when informed of Suwarrow's march, he was eager to have his plan executed before that General's arrival. Accordingly, on the 24th of September, after a false attack upon Bruck, to draw off the attention of the allies, he gave orders to General

Lorges

Lorges to paſs the Limmat above Baden, with his diviſion, and attack the Ruſſians on the oppoſite bank. Two other diviſions were to march up to the heights on the weſt of Zurich, and attack in front. General Soult had orders to paſs the Linth the ſame moment that the action ſhould begin at Zurich, and attack the Auſtrians in that quarter.

All theſe orders were executed early on the morning of the 25th. General Hotze was killed in the beginning of the engagement. General Petraſch, upon whom the command devolved, was driven from all his poſts, obliged to retreat into the Toggenburg, and entirely ſeparated from the centre of the army. The attacks againſt Zurich were equally ſucceſsful. The Ruſſians defended themſelves with much bravery, but numbers at length prevailed. The camp was forced, the town of Zurich was carried ſword in hand. The Ruſſians loſt more than 2000 men, a part of their baggage, and ten pieces of cannon. And Prince Korſakow was obliged to draw off his army to Egleſau and Schaffhauſen. The French purſued the Auſtrians in the direction of St Gall, and the Ruſſians in that of Schaffhauſen. And both were compelled to paſs the Rhine, and to place the lake of Conſtance between them and their victorious enemy.

Suwarrow, in the mean time, having forced back General Gudin's brigade, as far as Altorf, was ſtopt by ſome diviſions which Lecourbe had collected, and marched againſt him. Maſſena himſelf marched to the aſſiſtance of the latter with 15,000 men. After the affair of Zurich, Marſhal Linken had gained ſome advantages on the ſide of the lake of Wallenſtadt, had taken two French battalions, and had advanced

as far as Glaris, on the 29th, with a view to favour Suwarrow's movements; but, unable to communicate with that General, he withdrew into the Griſons. Suwarrow, after ſeveral bloody actions in the narrow valleys, had penetrated as far as Mutten and Schwitz. A part of General Roſenberg's corps, too, after having defeated a French diviſion, reached Glaris, juſt as General Linken had evacuated it. In the valley of Mutten, a dreadful engagement took place between Suwarrow and Lecourbe, in which the advantage fell to the ſide of the Ruſſians, who carried the bridge of the Mutten, and the poſt of Brunnen, on the 4th and 5th of October.

Notwithſtanding this ſucceſs, Suwarrow, conſidering the diminiſhed ſtate of his army, did not think it prudent to attempt to penetrate any farther, or to hazard a general action. He therefore retreated into the valley of the Griſons, accompanied with two Auſtrian diviſions, under Auffenberg and Jellachich. Nor was this retreat effected without conſiderable loſs, both from the purſuers, and from the extreme difficulty of the paſſes among the mountains. Their rear-guard was almoſt totally cut off by a column which Maſſena had directed on Altorf. Their wounded, who were numerous, could not be tranſported. And moſt of their artillery and baggage fell into the hands of the enemy.

With a view to ſecond the deſign of General Suwarrow, and, if poſſible, to effect the junction of the two armies, Prince Korſakow had repaſſed the Rhine, and marched upon Winterthur. Maſſena, being informed of this, firſt ordered Soult's diviſion to march by the head of the lake of Conſtance, to ſecure his right flank, and keep in check a body of Auſtrians, who

who had retreated to Feldkirch and Bregentz; and then, putting himſelf at the head of the diviſions that were before Zurich, he met the allies on the 7th of October, between the Thur and the Rhine; defeated them, and obliged them to repaſs the laſt-mentioned river. On the ſide of Conſtance, the action was extremely hot. Three times was the town taken and retaken, but remained definitively in the hands of the French.

Thus ended a conflict which had laſted for fifteen days, ſince the firſt attack of the advanced poſts, and had extended over one half of Switzerland. In a ſpace of 80 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and 50 miles in breadth, there had not been a ſingle paſs among the mountains, with which the whole country is covered, that had not been diſputed in pitched battles, occupied as poſts, or traverſed by armies, all having relation to the ſame general action, which may be called the battle of Zurich. The loſs of the allies, in this ſeries of engagements, has been computed at 25,000 men, and that of the French at 15,000 killed, wounded, and priſoners.

As ſoon as the Archduke was informed of theſe events, and underſtood that, from the French army of the Rhine, troops had filed off towards Straſbourg and Baſil, he left a ſufficient force to cover Manheim and Philipſburg, and, with the greateſt part of his army, ſet out for Switzerland, on the frontiers of which he arrived about the 10th of October. There he found it neceſſary to concentrate his forces, while he ordered General Nauendorf to take a ſtrong poſition in Upper Swabia. At the ſame time, a part of Korſakow's army filed off by his left, towards the lake of Conſtance; while Suwarrow, on the other ſide, having

having received a great part of the artillery which he left in Italy, marched to Feldkirch, united the Cordon at the right ſide of the lake of Conſtance, and met the other Ruſſian Generals at Lindau. The French had retaken St Gothard's, and threatened to enter the Griſons by the valley of Diſentis, and by Sargens. On the Lower Rhine, General Muller had repaſſed the river, marched anew upon Frankfort, Heidelberg, and Manheim, and diſperſed the militia, which could not be ſufficiently ſupported.

And now, the almoſt entire evacuation of Switzerland by the allies, and the reſpective ſituation of both armies, brought on once more a material ſuſpenſion of arms. Both the conquerors and the conquered were almoſt equally exhauſted. Both had applied for reinforcements, and were expecting them. The laſt reſources of both armies had been exhauſted, and the little which the inhabitants of the country could ſupply was conſumed; ſo that both parties were under the neceſſity of continuing inactive for ſome time.

About the beginning of November, Suwarrow collected the remains of both the Ruſſian armies at Lindau, on the lake of Conſtance, and began his retreat homeward, ſo that he appeared in the field no more. The Prince of Conde, with his corps, left him, and filed off towards Augſburg. By the defection of the Ruſſians, the ſituation of the Archduke became extremely critical. He had a line of nearly 80 leagues to defend, with 60,000 men, againſt a force much ſuperior; for his left extended to Nauders, on the frontier of the Tyrol, while his right fell down to Philipſburg.

The lake of Conſtance, indeed, was a kind of protection

tection to his centre. But the French, after ſecuring their poſitions on the left of that lake, puſhed their advantages on the ſide of the Griſons, by the valley of Diſentis. They diſlodged the rear-guard of the Auſtrians, which held faſt the principal paſſes, and obliged them to retreat acroſs the Rhine. Coire was evacuated. But General Linken, who ſucceeded General Hotze, kept the poſt of Mayenfield, maintained his communication with Feldkirch, and transferred his head-quarters to Pludentz, in the Voralberg.

Maſſena made no further advances in that quarter. He employed himſelf in collecting the greateſt part of his army at Baſil and Zurich, and in raiſing and ſtrengthening the entrenchments there. All the paſſes of St Gothard and the Simplin were cloſed up by the ſnow, and had become impervious to armies. The Auſtrians, on their part, after the evacuation of Switzerland, ſeem to have reſted in a ſtate of paſſive obſervation with regard to that country, and directed their principal efforts to another quarter.

The Court of Vienna felt all the importance of retaining their conqueſts in Italy; and therefore, all the troops which could be collected in Corinthia, in the Tyrol, and in the Venetian States, were directed towards the army under Generals Melas and Kray. Theſe two had ſeparated their forces, after the affair of Troſſano and Savigliano. Melas endeavoured to inveſt Coni, which was rendered extremely difficult by the French being maſters of the high valleys; while Kray marched into the valley of Aoſta, and obliged the enemy to repaſs Mount Jouvet. The diviſions of Ott and Frolich were employed before Rome, and Klenau, continuing in the neighbourhood of Genoa, puſhed his poſts as far as Ripalto.

Championet, that he might parry the blow that threatened his left, transferred his head-quarters to Finale. Thoſe of Melas were at La Trinita. A war of poſts was maintained between them; the one endeavoured to form, and the other to prevent, the inveſtment of Coni; while each uſed means to divert the other's attention from the main object, but without effect. General Melas ſent reinforcements to thoſe poſts which were threatened by the French; but continued to aſſemble the army deſtined for the ſiege. Coni was blockaded, and preparations were made for carrying on the ſiege with vigour.

The French General, on his part, after giving charge of Genoa, and the places adjacent, to St Cyr, collected his whole force at Coni, which, including the garriſon, amounted to 25,000 men. After ſeveral ſkirmiſhes, the ſucceſs of which was various, he determined, by enveloping the right wing of the Auſtrians, and cutting off their communication with their magazines at Bra and Turin, to oblige Melas either to draw off from Coni, or to fight in a diſadvantageous poſition. To conceal his deſign, he attacked the poſts of Chiuſa and Villa Nova, which were evacuated by the Auſtrians. The ſame column advanced to Mendovi, which refuſed to ſurrender. Ceva was alſo blocked up, and other poſts were taken. Meantime the diviſions of the left and centre marched forward, and took poſſeſſion of both banks of the Stura. On the 1ſt of November one detachment took poſſeſſion of the entrenchments of Caſtelletto, and another carried the Auſtrian poſts near Pignerol.

Melas, having diſcovered his enemy's project, evacuated Mendovi, abandoned his entrenchments between the Stura and the Tanaro, and took a poſition below

below Savigliano, of which the French had got poſſeſſion. Both armies were now facing each other, when both Generals formed the deſign of attacking each other on the ſame day. On the morning of the 4th of November, the two armies formed, and began their march at the ſame time. The action began by the meeting of a column led by General Ott, to attack Savigliano, with a French column, commanded by Grenier, which marched upon Marienne. After a vigorous reſiſtance, Grenier was forced to retreat to Savigliano, from whence he was ſoon after diſlodged, and driven back towards Genola. In other places the battle was equally obſtinate, and the iſſue the ſame. The French were every where beaten, and obliged to withdraw to Contala, when night put an end to the conteſt. They abandoned Contala during the night, and fled in different directions. General Melas continued the purſuit for ſeveral days, and made about 3000 priſoners. Upon the whole, the French loſt not leſs than 8000 men; and the remains of their army were ſeparated into three corps. One retreated under Coni, another by the Colle di Tende, and the third under Mondovi. But Melas gave them no reſt, till he had driven them from all their poſts in the neighbourhood of Coni, which he then ſummoned to ſurrender; and, on its refuſal, began the operations of the ſiege.

In the mean time, General Kray was engaged in operations no leſs important. He had advanced to Acqui, of which he had taken poſſeſſion, after driving from thence the French under St Cyr; who, abandoning their poſitions in that quarter, had fortified themſelves upon the Novi. General Kray forced their entrenchments here likewiſe, and compelled

them to retreat with loſs. This freed Melas from any apprehenſion leſt Championet ſhould draw reinforcements from the army of St Cyr. Klenau having made ſome progreſs on the eaſt of Genoa, was attacked by d'Arnaud, and driven back. And the French had cleared the territory of Genoa. But this was all that now remained to them of their conqueſts in Italy; for the town of Ancona had ſurrendered. It had been blocked up by ſea for ſome months, and inveſted on the land ſide by an army of inſurgents. But it was defended by a garriſon of 2500 French, who repulſed the aſſailants in different ſallies, and killed their commander. But after the taking of Rome, General Frolich led his diviſion to the attack of Ancona; and after a bombardment of forty-eight hours, the garriſon capitulated on the 14th of November, and became priſoners of war.

The ſiege of Coni was carried on with vigour. More than 7000 men were employed in the trenches and batteries. The water had been turned off, to prevent the mills from working, and 200 pieces were ready to play upon the town. The trenches were opened on the 24th of November. The garriſon made a ſortie, with a view to deſtroy the works, but without effect. The firſt parallel was finiſhed in four days. By the 12th of December, nineteen batteries were ready to play upon the town. Next day the fire was ſo terrible, that the garriſon were compelled to abandon their works. At the ſame time, a bomb, falling on a magazine of powder, blew up a redoubt. Of this the Auſtrians took poſſeſſion; and, continuing their operations, completed their ſecond parallel on the 2d of January. The town was on fire in ſeveral places, and the continual falling of bombs rendered

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it impoſſible to extinguiſh it. Finding that there was no hope of relief, and that further reſiſtance could only iſſue in the total deſtruction of the town, the French commander agreed to capitulate, and the garriſon, conſiſting of 2500 men, ſurrendered priſoners of war.

At the cloſe of the year, the Auſtrians occupied all the paſſes which ſeparate France from Italy. Their lines extended by the great Lake, and by thoſe of Lugano and Como, as far as Bellinzone and Chiavenna. And they had in a manner inveſted the Ligurian Republic, by taking poſſeſſion of advantageous poſts on every ſide of it. General Klenau's diviſion, on the eaſtern coaſt, was within four miles of Genoa, and maintained a communication with the troops ſtationed in Tuſcany.

The French army, beſides having poſſeſſion of the ſea-coaſt, from Nice to Genoa, and the whole Ligurian territory, ſtill maintained themſelves in their poſitions at Teſnils, Ceſena, and ſome other places in the Eccleſiaſtical State. But they were conſiderably weakened by deſertion, occaſioned by want of proviſion.

The ſudden defection of the Ruſſians, who, upon the firſt reverſe of fortune, deſerted the cauſe in which they had fought with ſo much ſucceſs, can only be accounted for by the caprice of the monarch who then occupied the throne of all the Ruſſias. To the ſame cauſe we muſt attribute the diſgrace into which Suwarrow fell with his maſter; which was ſaid to have ſuch effect upon the high ſpirit of the veteran, that he died of chagrin, before he reached the frontiers of his own country.

CHAP.

CHAP. XVII.

A Plan laid for an expedition to Holland,—delayed by the ſailing of the Breſt fleet.—The expedition ſails from the Downs,—lands in North Holland,—defeats the enemy,—takes poſſeſſion of the Helder Fort, and of the Dutch fleet.—The enemy's attack repelled.—Amſterdam alarmed.—Battle of Bergen.—Operations on the Zuyder Zee.—Engagement of the 2d of October,—and of the 6th.—Precarious ſtate of the Britiſh army.—Armiſtice concluded,—and Holland evacuated.—Reflections.—Bonaparte's expedition into Syria.—Capture of El Ariſch.—Sir Sidney Smith anchors before St John D'Acre.—March of the French army acroſs the deſart.—Gaza taken,—and Jaffa.—Battle near Samaria.—French artillery fleet taken.—Siege of Acre.—Battle of Eſdrelon.—Further operations of the ſiege.—Bonaparte's retreat from Acre.—Reflections.—Return of the French army to Cairo.—Operations in Egypt.—A Turkiſh army landed at Aboukir,—defeated.—The Fort taken by the French.—Bonaparte leaves Egypt,—and arrives in France.—Defeat of Mourad Bey in Upper Egypt,—and of a Turkiſh army at Damietta.

WHILE the allied armies were employed, with much temporary ſucceſs, in ſetting the inhabitants of Italy free from the yoke of France, the Britiſh Cabinet conceived the idea of an attempt to break that

that yoke from off the necks of the Dutch provinces, and to reſtore their former government. And a plan was concerted for that purpoſe with the Court of Peterſburg. But the execution of it was probably delayed by an event, which, to this day, appears unaccountable.

In the ſpring of the year 1799, the Britiſh fleet was ſo diſpoſed on the coaſts of the ocean, that there was not a port belonging to any of the hoſtile powers that was not blocked up, nor a road that was not guarded. Lord Bridport, with ſixteen ſail of the line, blocked up the harbour of Breſt. It was known that great preparations were making among the ſhips of war there, ſuperintended by Bruix, the miniſter of the French marine, who had come down to Breſt for that purpoſe. But, conſcious of the ſuperiority of the Britiſh navy, it was not expected that they would venture out. A gale of wind, however, having driven Lord Bridport from his ſtation, and the French fleet, to the number of twenty-four ſail of the line, eight frigates, and two ſloops, took that opportunity of ſailing. They were commanded by Bruix himſelf, and had not only their full complement of men, but likewiſe a number of land-forces on board. They ſailed on the 26th of April.

When Lord Bridport reſumed his ſtation, and found that the enemy's fleet had eſcaped him, he beat about to diſcover the track they had taken, but in vain. He then ſet ſail for the coaſt of Ireland, apprehending that they might intend a deſcent in that kingdom. He continued to cruize off Cape Clear, where his fleet was ſoon augmented to an equality with that of France. Proper reinforcements were alſo ſent to Lord St Vincent off Cadiz, and to Lord Duncan at the

the mouth of the Texel; ſo that wherever the French fleet had gone, they might meet force equal to their own. They ſet ſail for the Mediterranean; and after parading ſome time on the coaſt of Italy, were joined by a Spaniſh ſquadron at Carthagena. The winds favouring them, they repaſſed the Straits, and anchored in the Bay of Cadiz, from whence Lord St Vincent had gone to ſea, in ſearch of them. At length, on the 21ſt of July, the combined fleet, which now amounted to forty-ſeven ſail of the line, left Cadiz, and a few days after entered the port of Breſt, without having met with an enemy, or performed any thing of what was expected from them.

In the mean time, preparations were making in England, for the expedition to Holland. It was at firſt ſpoken of as a ſecret expedition. But its deſtination was ſoon known; nor would it, perhaps, have been politic to conceal it. The majority of the Dutch people were known to be weary of French tyranny, if they durſt have avowed it; and it might have been expected, that if any thing could have arouſed them, the knowledge that an army of more than 20,000 men was ready to come over to their relief, would have excited them to be prepared to co-operate with them, for effecting their own deliverance. But the weight of Dutch phlegm was too powerful to be overbalanced by any ſuch conſideration.

Though no myſtery was made of the general object of the armament, the particular direction of the attack was carefully kept ſecret. The eaſtern provinces were known to be beſt diſpoſed towards the Stadtholder. Theſe lay neareſt to the Ruſſians; and on the other ſide, the only place where the tranſports were ſtationed being the mouth of the Thames, ſeemed

ed to threaten Zealand, and the mouths of the Meuſe and the Scheld. Thus, the attention of the French and Batavian Governments was divided, and diverted from the point where the attack was to be made.

After the return of the combined fleet to Breſt, which was followed by the Britiſh fleet from the Mediterranean, miniſtry, finding that Ireland was out of danger, and that they had at hand a force more than ſufficient to watch the motions of the Breſt fleet, preſſed the departure of the firſt diviſion of the army, which was commanded by General Sir Ralph Abercrombie. And they ſailed from the Downs in the beginning of Auguſt, in 130 tranſports, eſcorted by Admiral Mitchell, with a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war. Meeting with contrary winds, ſome ſhips were ſeparated from the convoy, which, appearing on the coaſts of Zealand, and on thoſe of Groningen and Eaſt Frieſland, ſpread the alarm in theſe parts. At length, on the 19th of the month, the body of the Britiſh fleet appeared on the coaſt of North Holland. Next day, Lord Duncan, whoſe ſquadron had been joined by that of Admiral Mitchell, ſent an invitation to Admiral Story, who commanded the Dutch fleet in the Texel, conſiſting of nine ſhips of the line, and a few frigates, to acknowledge the Stadtholder, to hoiſt the Orange flag, and to come over to the Britiſh fleet. To this Story anſwered by a peremptory refuſal. A like ſummons was ſent by General Abercrombie to the commander of the Helder fort, and received a ſimilar anſwer.

The contrary wind prevented the Britiſh troops being landed till the 26th. That day the whole fleet came to anchor, cloſe in ſhore. And next morning by day-break, the troops began to land, un-

der the protection of the guns of the fleet. Though no oppoſition was made to their landing, they no ſooner began to move forward, than General Daendels bore down upon them with a conſiderable body of infantry, cavalry, and artillery, and a warm engagement enſued, which continued from five o'clock in the morning, till three in the afternoon, when the enemy was forced to retire to a poſition two leagues in his rear. The loſs of the Britiſh, in this firſt engagement, was 56 men killed, 371 wounded, officers included, and 26 miſſing.

The Helder fort was occupied by a garriſon of nearly 2000 men, and it was determined to attack it early the next morning. But the garriſon evacuated it in the night, after ſpiking the guns, and deſtroying ſome of the carriages. The Britiſh troops took poſſeſſion of it, and found there a numerous artillery of the beſt kind. In the morning, Admiral Mitchell took poſſeſſion of two ſhips of the line, five frigates, five Eaſt-India ſhips, and eight large tranſports, in the Nieuve Diep; Admiral Story having carried the reſt of the fleet further up the harbour. On the 30th, Admiral Mitchell got his ſquadron under weigh, formed a line, and prepared to engage the Dutch fleet. He then ſent a ſummons to Admiral Story, to hoiſt the flag of the Prince of Orange, and received for anſwer, that he meant to have ſhewn what he could do for his ſovereign, the Batavian people; but the traitors whom he commanded refuſed to fight, and therefore he delivered up the fleet, declaring himſelf and his officers priſoners of war. In this manner did Admiral Mitchell get poſſeſſion of the whole remainder of the Dutch fleet, amounting

ing to eight ſhips of the line, three large frigates, and a ſloop of ſixteen guns.

The Britiſh army continued to occupy the Sand-hills, where it fought on the day of landing, till the 1ſt of September, when it moved forward, and took poſt with its right to Petten on the German ocean, and its left to Oude Sluys on the Zuyder Zee, with the canal of Zuype in front, reſolving to continue on the defenſive, till the arrival of reinforcements, and improving its ſituation with that view.

On the morning of the 10th of that month, the enemy made an attack upon the centre and right wing, in three columns, and apparently with their whole force. They advanced with great intrepidity, till they were within a hundred yards of the poſt occupied by the Britiſh troops. But they were every where repulſed, and about ten o'clock retreated towards Alkmaar, leaving behind them many dead, and ſome wounded men, with one piece of cannon, a number of waggons, pontoons, and portable bridges. The loſs of the Britiſh in this affair was 37 men killed, 144 wounded, and 19 miſſing. At this time, the Britiſh army conſiſted only of about 16,000, while that of the enemy which attacked them amounted to more than 24,000. Their left column was compoſed of French troops, led on by General Brune, and the other two were Batavians, the right commanded by General Daendels, and the centre by Dumonceau.

As yet General Abercrombie had received no reinforcements, except from four to five thouſand of the Duke of York's diviſion, under General Don. Some light-ſailing veſſels had been ſent out to meet the Ruſſians at ſea, and conduct them to the Texel, but

had not fallen in with them. They had arrived ſucceſſively at Yarmouth, where they were detained by contrary winds. The Duke of York himſelf, and the reſt of his diviſion, among whom were the greateſt part of the cavalry, were detained by the ſame cauſe, till the 10th of September, the ſame day when the laſt-mentioned battle was fought. On that day, he ſailed from Yarmouth in the Amethyſt frigate, accompanied with 80 tranſports. On the 15th, he arrived at the Texel, and landed his troops; in conſequence of which, the Britiſh army in Holland amounted to about 20,000. Two days afterwards, the firſt diviſion of Ruſſian troops arrived, under General Hermann, which increaſed the army, of which his Royal Highneſs took the command, to about 33,000.

During theſe operations, the young Prince of Orange had collected a ſmall body of his adherents, and made a diverſion on the frontier of Over-Yſſel. He ſummoned the little fortreſs of Coevorden, and puſhed forward on the ſide of Arnheim, till he was within a league of that place. But very few joined his ſtandard. The proclamations of the Stadtholder excited no movement in the country. The national guards of Arnheim and Oldenrad marched out with cannon, attacked and diſperſed the Prince's little army. Himſelf and his officers embarked at Embden, with a view to join the Duke of York.

A fleet of Engliſh boats had entered the Zuyder Zee, and taken poſſeſſion of Medenblick. This alarmed the Republicans for the city of Amſterdam. Preparations were inſtantly made for the defence of the road. Veſſels were ſunk in the channel called the Pampus, batteries were erected at the entrance of

of the port, an officer of the French marine had the charge of all manuœvres by water, and a French General took the command of the city, and of the whole department. General Brune, in the mean time, was expecting a ſtrong reinforcement from the low countries, and was preſſing the Batavian Government to augment their levies of national guards. This, it was ſaid, they found ſo eaſy, that when requiſitions were made for four or five hundred men, they were anſwered by the appearance of twice the number; yea, in ſome places, the whole inhabitants marched to join the army. Theſe things determined the French General to limit himſelf, for the preſent, to keeping the Britiſh army at bay. Yet a ſmart ſkirmiſh took place at Warmanhuyſen, of which the Britiſh had taken poſſeſſion, and from which they were diſlodged, at the moment when the Duke of York landed with his diviſion.

His Royal Highneſs, having taken upon him the command of the whole allied army, loſt no time in making preparations for a general attack upon the enemy. On the evening of the 18th, he ſent off General Abercrombie, with a corps of from ſix to ſeven thouſand men, to take poſſeſſion of Hoorn, and be ready to march upon the rear of the enemy, when a proper opportunity ſhould preſent itſelf. He got poſſeſſion of Hoorn without any oppoſition, as he found only two companies of infantry in the place. On the morning of the 19th, at day-break, the reſt of the army moved forward to the attack in three columns. The right-hand column, compoſed moſtly of Ruſſians, and commanded by the Ruſſian General Hermann, was oppoſed to the French under General Brune. The centre column was commanded by General

neral Dundas, and the left by General Sir James Pulteney; both theſe, with the Duke of York himſelf at their head, were oppoſed to the Dutch, whoſe right was commanded by General Daendels, and their left, which was the centre of the whole Republican army, by Dumonceau.

The attack began on the right, at three o'clock in the morning. General Hermann at firſt ſucceeded in driving back the French from the villages of Kamp and Groot. Soon after this, he got poſſeſſion of Bergen, and puſhed forward till he was only half a league from Alkmaar; while the French had retired from the fury of his attack, into a wood in the neighbourhood of Bergen. The intrepidity of the Ruſſians carried them forward, without allowing them to reflect upon the danger to which they were expoſed, till they found themſelves attacked on the right flank by the French iſſuing from the wood, and on the left by a part of Dumonceau's diviſion. They fought like men in deſperation; and, after being broken and diſperſed, defended themſelves in the church and houſes of Bergen, where a dreadful carnage enſued. A great part of them had their retreat cut off. They loſt their artillery. General Hermann himſelf was taken priſoner, as was another General who ſerved under him, and who was deſperately wounded.

The centre column under General Dundas, as ſoon as it was light, began their attack upon the village of Walmenhuyſen, where the enemy was ſtrongly poſted with cannon. After obtaining poſſeſſion of it, they marched againſt Shoreldam, which they alſo took, and maintained it againſt a very heavy fire, till the right-hand column had retreated at the concluſion

concluſion of the action. Sir James Pulteney, with his column, attacked the poſt of Oude Carſpel, from which General Daendels, after a ſtrenuous oppoſition, was diſlodged. But the diſaſter ſuffered by the Ruſſians on the right made it neceſſary to call back the other diviſions, and the Dutch reſumed the poſts from which they had been driven.

The battle continued till five o'clock in the evening. The loſs of the Britiſh was 117 killed, 409 wounded, officers included, and 492 miſſing. That of the Ruſſians is not aſcertained, but was ſuppoſed to amount, in all, to about 1500. The enemy's loſs muſt have been much more conſiderable, as the allies took 60 officers, and upwards of 3000 rank and file, priſoners, and deſtroyed ſixteen cannon, and a large quantity of ammunition, which the ſituation of the country did not permit them to remove. During the night, Sir Ralph Abercrombie evacuated Hoorn, and both armies reſumed their former poſitions.

The event of this battle, together with the arrival of a fleet of 60 or 70 French gun-boats, which had been ſent from Dunkirk, by the interior canals, for the defence of the Pampus, diſſipated the alarm that had been ſpread through Amſterdam. The two armies were employed in ſtrengthening their reſpective poſitions. The allies were reinforced by the arrival of the rear-guard of the Ruſſians, amounting to 2000 men; and, on the other hand, a French demi-brigade, marching through Amſterdam, had joined the Republicans at Alkmaar, where every exertion was making to form new battalions of national guards.

The Britiſh being maſters of the Zuyder Zee, Admiral Mitchell, having ſhifted his flag to the Babet, ſailed up, with

with a ſquadron of ſmall veſſels, on the 21ſt of September, as far as Medenblick and Enkhauſen. When at anchor off the latter place, a boat came off to him with four men, wearing orange cockades, which induced him to go aſhore, accompanied by his captains, where he was received with joy by the inhabitants. The new municipality was inſtantly diſſolved, and the old burgo-maſters were reinſtated in their office. The trees of liberty were cut down and burnt, and every mark of attachment to the houſe of Orange exhibited. The ſame thing had taken place at Medenblick before, upon the appearance of ſome Britiſh veſſels, which the Admiral had ſent thither. The inhabitants of Steveren, Lemmer, and other towns on the other ſide of the lake, ſhewed a ſimilar diſpoſition, when viſited by thoſe veſſels, which were ſent over by the Admiral for that purpoſe. This ſhews that the people were not cordially attached to their new government, if they durſt have declared themſelves; though, in the event, the ſubmiſſion of theſe proved of no advantage to the cauſe of the allies.

Little took place between the two armies for ſeveral days after the engagement of the 19th. Brune was uſing every endeavour to bring forward his reinforcements, and to ſtrengthen his poſition. For this purpoſe, he had found means to inundate a great part of the country, from Medenblick to Alkmaar, ſo that his line of defence was reduced to about three leagues in front.

Notwithſtanding the diſadvantage ariſing from this circumſtance, the Duke of York made a general attack, on the 2d of October. His army was again diſpoſed in four columns. The firſt, under General Abercrombie, marched on the right along the ſeaſhore.

ſhore. The ſecond, which conſiſted of Ruſſians, under General d'Eſſen, and the third of Britiſh, commanded by General Dundas, marched towards Bergen, and extended themſelves to the heights of Camperdown. The fourth, in which was the young Prince of Orange, was ſtationed on the left, to keep General Daendels in check. As the inundations prevented the Britiſh army from manœuvring on the left, the principal effort was again directed againſt the French, who conſtituted the left of General Brune's army. In the beginning of the action, the enemy's advanced guards were diſlodged from Groet, Kamp, Schorel, and Schoreldam; afterwards the engagement took a more ſerious turn towards Bergen. This village was obſtinately defended againſt General Dundas; till General Abercrombie, having driven back all that oppoſed him, had already paſſed Bergen, and was engaged in the attack of Egmont. This place, as well as the other, was obſtinately maintained till the evening; but both were evacuated by the enemy during the night. The centre of the French and Batavian army was attacked with the ſame ſucceſs. Brune then found it neceſſary to fall back, and take a new poſition, with his left at Wick-op-Zee, and his centre at Krimman-dyke. The right wing, under General Daendels, though it had not been attacked, was obliged to follow the motions of the reſt of the army, and fell back to Purmerend and Monikendam.

The enemy's loſs in this engagement is not aſcertained: but was ſuppoſed to exceed 4000 in killed, wounded, and priſoners. Seven pieces of cannon, and a number of tumbrils were taken. The loſs of the Britiſh was 237 killed, 1102 wounded, and 193

miſſing. Of the Ruſſians, there were 170 killed or taken priſoners, and 423 wounded. Next day the Britiſh forces entered Alkmaar, and ſent forward their poſts, parallel to thoſe of the enemy. And Brune, on his part, after ſending back part of his baggage to Haerlem, took pains to ſecure himſelf in the poſition he had taken.

His Royal Highneſs, underſtanding that conſiderable reinforcements were on their way to join the Republican army, determined, if poſſible, to prevent them; and accordingly renewed the attack on the 6th of the month. At firſt the Britiſh troops ſucceeded, without much difficulty, in driving the enemy from ſundry poſts. But afterwards, the French General bringing up his whole force, which had been augmented ſince the affair of the 2d, by 6000 infantry, the engagement became general along the whole line, from Limmen to the ſea; and continued with great obſtinacy till night, when the enemy retired to their former poſition, leaving the allies maſters of the field of battle. In this action there were loſt, of the Britiſh forces, 91 killed, 725 wounded, and 609 miſſing: and of the Ruſſians, 382 killed or taken priſoners, and 735 wounded. Of the enemy's loſs we have no information.

The Britiſh and Ruſſian army was now in very precarious circumſtances, on account of the ſtate of the weather, the badneſs of the roads, and the conſequent impoſſibility of procuring the neceſſary ſupplies. His Royal Highneſs, therefore, called a council of war, whoſe unanimous opinion it was, that the army ſhould be withdrawn from its preſent advanced poſition, and fall back to the Zyp, to wait for further orders from his Majeſty. But finding the winter approaching,

proaching, and conſcious of the impoſſibility of covering the army during that ſeaſon, and the precarious ſtate of the ſupplies that could be obtained for them, the Duke of York, in conjunction with Admiral Mitchell, entered into a negotiation with General Brune, and an armiſtice was concluded between them, on the following conditions: All hoſtilities were to ceaſe; no new works were to be conſtructed, either for offence or defence; the allied army was to be re-embarked; and the batteries, at the Helder or elſewhere, which the allies had taken poſſeſſion of, were to be reſtored, in the ſtate they were in when taken, or in their preſent ſtate, if improved; and 8000 priſoners, French and Batavians, were to be ſet at liberty, of whom Admiral De Winter was to be one. This treaty was ſigned on the 18th of October; and meaſures were immediately taken to put it in execution. But it was ſome time before the Britiſh and Ruſſian forces could be wholly withdrawn. At length, on the 19th of November, the laſt of them were embarked, and ſailed with a fair wind from the Texel. Some damaged proviſions were left behind, as likewiſe a few waggons, and about 300 draught horſes of little value, for which there was no tonnage. Theſe laſt might have been expoſed to ſale; but his Royal Highneſs, with a benevolence worthy of himſelf, choſe to leave them with the magiſtrates of the different villages, to be diſtributed to ſuch of the inhabitants as had ſuffered by the inevitable conſequences of war.

Thus ended this memorable expedition, which coſt the nation a good deal of money, and a number of valuable lives; without contributing any thing to the ſucceſs of the common cauſe. Its failure afforded an occaſion of much triumph to our enemies abroad,

and of many loud complaints to the diſcontented at home. Miniſtry were taxed with egregious folly, and with the moſt criminal profuſion of Britiſh treaſure, and of Britiſh blood. Multitudes were ſaid to have periſhed in Holland, who were happily found alive in Britain, after the arrival of the tranſports. It likewiſe occaſioned the loſs of the friendſhip of the Ruſſian monarch, who, finding his armies beginning to be unſucceſsful every where, withdrew himſelf from the coalition, in high dudgeon, thinking himſelf betrayed by his allies, and particularly by Britain; becauſe it ſo happened, that in this expedition, a greater proportion of the Ruſſians fell, than of the Britiſh forces. It muſt be acknowledged, that it was no very well concerted plan, to ſend out ſuch an expedition, to ſuch a place ſo late in the ſeaſon. And to this circumſtance its failure may rationally be imputed. But, in excuſe for our miniſtry, it ſhould be conſidered, that it would have been equally improper, at leaſt, to ſend it out while the French fleet was at ſea, and while it was utterly unknown to what part of the world they had gone, or with what view they had ſailed. Indeed, it is more than probable, that having heard of the preparations making in England, for this expedition, they put to ſea of purpoſe to prevent its ſailing, or elſe to attack it on its paſſage. If this was their aim, they gained their end ſo far as to prevent its ſucceſs, though they neither could prevent its departure, nor its arrival at the place of its deſtination.

It will now be proper to return to Bonaparte and his army of Egypt. We left him, at the cloſe of the preceding year, at Grand Cairo, making preparations for the conqueſt of Syria; after having quelled a dangerous inſurrection in that capital of Egypt. At this time,

time, Commodore Hood continued to block up the port of Alexandria, with four ſhips of the line and five frigates; but found it impracticable to burn or deſtroy the fleet of French frigates and tranſports that was in the harbour. In the mean time, a plan was formed, by the Divan at Conſtantinople, with the aſſiſtance, it was ſaid, of the Court of Great Britain, to drive, if poſſible, the invaders out of Egypt. The execution of it was to be chiefly entruſted to Djezzar Pacha; and Sir Sidney Smith had ſailed for the Levant, in the Tigre, of 84 guns, with a view to direct the motions of Djezzar, and to co-operate with him, on his own element.

Bonaparte, informed of Djezzar's preparations, reſolved to prevent him. He had ſpent about two months in making ſurveys of the country which he had ſubdued. General Andreoſſi had been employed in ſounding the road of Damietta, in taking a chart of the Lake of Menzala, and in viſiting the Natron Lakes. Bonaparte himſelf went to Suez, about the latter end of December, with a view to reſolve the problem about the exiſtence of a canal, which joined the Red Sea to the Mediterranean. It was here that he received information of the movements of Djezzar, whom the Grand Signior had named Pacha of Egypt; and of conſequence had ſent ſeveral detachments towards the frontiers of the Deſart, while himſelf returned to Cairo, to inſpect the organization of the army, with which he intended to march into Syria.

This army conſiſted of four diviſions of infantry, amounting to about 10,000, commanded by Kleber, Bon, Lannes, and Regnier; a troop of 800 horſe, under General Murat, 1700 engineers and artillery, 400

guid

guides, and 88 dromedaries. On account of the difficulty of conveying artillery and ammunition acroſs the Deſart, Bonaparte had provided theſe different diviſions with pieces much below the ordinary ſize. The reſt of his forces were left to garriſon the different parts of Egypt. General Dugua was charged with the command in Cairo. Menou was ſtationed at Roſetta, Almeyras at Damietta, and Marmont at Alexandria, which, beſides being threatened by the Britiſh, began to be viſited by the plague. General Deſaix, with his army, remained in Upper Egypt, to keep Mourad Bey, and the remains of the Mamelukes, in check.

Kleber's diviſion embarked at Damietta, was tranſported to Tinck, on the Lake Menzala, and arrived on the 4th of February 1799, at Cathick, where they were joined by General Regnier's advanced guard, and marched on to El Ariſch, which was garriſoned by 2000 troops, belonging to the Pacha of St John d'Acre. The village was ſoon carried at the point of the bayonet, and they who had defended it retired precipitately into the fort. Scarcely was it blocked up by Regnier's diviſion, when a reinforcement came in ſight, conſiſting both of infantry and cavalry, eſcorting a convoy of proviſions; and encamped on the ſide of a hill. At that moment Kleber came up; and he and Regnier agreed to ſurpriſe the camp of the Mamelukes in the night. Their ſcheme ſucceeded. The camp was taken, the cavalry cut in pieces, and the whole convoy fell into the hands of the French. The two other diviſions of the army ſoon joined them at El Ariſch; Bonaparte himſelf arrived there on the 15th. The fort was cannonaded, and ſurrendered in two days.

The

The Turks were ſurpriſed by the promptitude of Bonaparte's operations. So ſlow were they in their preparations to oppoſe him, that the firſt diviſion of Janiſſaries, who were to form the army of the Grand Vizier, and to march through Natolia, had ſcarcely aſſembled at Scutari; and the corps which was to act on the coaſt of Egypt, under the direction of Sir Sydney Smith, was not yet organized. Sir Sydney, informed of the firſt movements of the French General, endeavoured to detain him in Egypt, by an attempt upon Alexandria, which he bombarded without any other effect than the ſinking of two tranſports. Finding this enterpriſe fruitleſs, he ſailed to the aſſiſtance of the Pacha of Syria, who, at firſt, entertained no thought of defending himſelf in St John D'Acre, being anxious only to preſerve his women and his treaſures. The Britiſh Commodore anchored in the road of Caiffa, with the Tigre, the Theſeus, and the Alliance frigate.

Bonaparte, ſenſible that the artillery neceſſary for the ſiege of Acre could not be carried thither by land, had ventured to ſend it by ſea. Vice Admiral Perree, with three frigates, ſet ſail in the night, to eſcort the gun-boats, with orders to cruiſe before Jaffa. The army, in the mean time, continued its painful march acroſs the deſart, filing along by diviſions at the diſtance of one or two days, that they might not exhauſt the wells of water. Kleber's diviſion was led out of the way by their guides. The two that followed it were deceived by the traces of the former. And it was not till after 48 hours march, tormented with burning thirſt, that the army reached Kahn Jonneſſe, the firſt village of Paleſtine. A corps of Mamelukes, which were encamped before this

this place, under the command of Abdalla Pacha, had fallen back to Gaza. Thither Bonaparte followed, and, after driving away the Mamelukes, took poſſeſſion of the town. There he found conſiderable magazines and ſtores, which the Turks could not carry away.

It was at Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, that the French General met with the firſt reſiſtance. This town was defended by a wall, flanked by ſtrong towers, and mounted with guns, but without ditches, or exterior works. The port and road were defended by two ſmall forts on the ſhore. The French opened a trench before it, erected three batteries againſt the higheſt ſquare tower, and marked a falſe attack on the north ſide. The Turks defended themſelves bravely, and made two ſallies, but were repulſed with loſs. At length, having made a practicable breach, Bonaparte gave orders for the aſſault. The French mounted the breach, and lodged themſelves in the tower, though it was reſolutely defended by the Turks, who again rallied, and attacked a column, which, being ſupported by General Lannes' diviſion, at laſt gained poſſeſſion of the fort next the ſea. The town was taken, and the greateſt part of a numerous garriſon were put to the ſword. Thoſe who were made priſoners, under pretence of being ſent off to Egypt, were committed into the hands of a detachment, who are ſaid to have carried them to the ſea-ſhore, at ſome diſtance from the city, and, by the humane orders of the Great General, to have ſhot them all in cold blood, to the number of 5000.

Making Jaffa the principal depot for the artillery and ſtores which he expected from Egypt, Bonaparte marched, with three diviſions of his army, for St John D'Acre, leaving the fourth, as a rear-guard, under General

General Regnier, who had orders to march along the coaſt, by Ceſarea, keeping two days behind the reſt of army, whom they were to join at Acre. The advanced guard, in approaching Zetta, diſcovered a body of cavalry, under Abdalla Pacha, who, in order to retard the march of the French army, had taken a poſition on the heights of Korſum, flanked by the mountain of Naplouſium, the ancient Samaria, on which were poſted ſome thouſands of the inhabitants of the country.

While part of the French army marched againſt Abdalla's cavalry, endeavouring to bring him to a battle, which he avoided, another part marched upon the right, to cut him off from the Naplouſians. Theſe laſt took to flight, but the French light infantry, who purſued them, having entangled themſelves in ſome defiles, the Naplouſians rallied, and became purſuers in their turn. Barthelemy, the commander of the demi-brigade, was killed, and his men were chaſed to the outlet of the defiles.

Two days after this, Kleber took poſſeſſion of Caiffa, a town at the foot of Mount Carmel, which had been evacuated by orders of the Pacha of Acre, though it was ſurrounded by a wall, and flanked with towers. Here they firſt diſcovered the diviſion of the Britiſh ſquadron, under Sir Sydney Smith, which had caſt anchor off St John D'Acre. On the night of the 17th of March, the guard-boats of the Tigre obſerved the French vanguard, at the foot of Mount Carmel, cloſe by the water-ſide, and attacked them with a round of grape-ſhot. The French, not expecting ſuch a thing, ſcampered up the hill, with all their native agility. The reſt of the army, not chu-

ſing to expoſe themſelves to a ſimilar danger, took the road to Acre by Nazareth.

Sir Sydney Smith, underſtanding that the French General expected his artillery by ſea, took meaſures for intercepting it. The Theſeus was ſtationed off Jaffa for that purpoſe. But the Flotilla coming in from ſea, was firſt obſerved from the Tigre. It conſiſted of a Corvette, and nine ſail of gun-veſſels, and was coming round Mount Carmel. The Tigre chaſed, and ſoon came up with them. Seven were taken, the Corvette and two ſmall veſſels eſcaped. Thirty-four guns were taken, and, inſtead of being employed againſt Acre, as Bonaparte intended, were uſed in its defence.

Sir Sydney had raiſed the courage of the Pacha, by ſending to him Colonel Phelipeaux, a French engineer, to whoſe friendſhip he was indebted for his deliverance from the priſon of the temple. The Colonel, aſſiſted by Captain Millar of the Theſeus, cauſed the fortifications to be repaired, and did all that could be done for putting the place in a proper ſtate of defence. It was only fortified after the manner of the 12th century, with walls and ſquare towers, but the preſence of a Britiſh naval force encouraged the Pacha and his troops to make a vigorous reſiſtance.

Bonaparte opened the trenches on the 20th of March, at the diſtance of 900 feet, on the eaſt ſide of the town. By the 9th day he had mounted batteries and counter-batteries, which had made a breach in one of the towers. They had alſo puſhed forward a mine, with a view to blow up the counterſcarp. The mine was ſprung, but it only made a hole in the Glacis. The French grenadiers, however, encouraged

encouraged by their ſucceſs at Jaffa, ſprung forward. A ditch of fifteen feet lay before them, ſcarce half filled up by the rubbiſh of the breach. They jumped into it, placed their ladders, and mounted the breach, but found themſelves ſeparated from the troops that ſhould have ſupported them, and expoſed to a heavy fire. Three officers who headed them were killed, and they retired, with conſiderable loſs, to their trenches. The ill ſucceſs of this firſt attack encouraged the Pacha to make ſeveral ſallies, in which, however, he was repulſed. Bonaparte had ſent to Damietta for more heavy artillery, to replace that which he had loſt. A few pieces had been landed at Jaffa, but had not reached him. He made a ſecond attempt on the ſame tower, which the Turks had filled with wood, bales of cotton, and bags of earth. The tower was ſet on fire, but all attempts to reach it proved abortive.

At length, on the 7th of April, Sir Sydney Smith, in concert with Djezzar, made a vigorous ſally, chiefly intended for the deſtruction of the mine, which led under the counterſcarp. The Britiſh ſeamen under Lieutenant Wright, and the marines under Captain Oldfield, were appointed to this dangerous ſervice. Captain Oldfield was killed, and Lieutenant Wright was dangerouſly wounded, but the mine was deſtroyed, as far as was practicable in its then ſtate. The loſs of the Britiſh, beſides Captain Oldfield, was two men killed, and twenty-three wounded. The Turks brought in about 60 heads, and ſome entrenching tools, which were much wanted. And the detachment returned into the town, covered by the fire of the Theſeus, which had taken an excellent poſition for that purpoſe.

Hitherto a detachment under General Junot, who occupied the posts of Nazareth and Saffet, had been thought sufficient to cover the siege. But now, the assembling of a corps of Mamelukes, who had followed Ibrahim Bey into Syria, with the Janissaries of Damascus and Aleppo, made it necessary to send a corps against them, which was entrusted to General Kleber. The foremost of the Turkish troops had already passed the Jordan. Parties of Arabs appeared at the outlets of the mountain of Naplousium. Junot turned the mountain to reach them, but found them more numerous than he expected, and was obliged to retreat to Kaff-cana. Kleber left the camp at Acre, with a view to join him, on the 11th of April, and had reached Sed-Jarra, four miles distant from Cana, when he found himself almost surrounded by 4000 cavalry, supported by 500 infantry, who were preparing to attack him. He prevented them, by attacking the village of Sed-Jarra, which he carried, nd then drove the Turkish cavalry across the Jordan.

About this time, the whole army which was destined for the relief of Acre, had passed the Jordan at the bridge of Jacob, and at Giz-el-Mecanie, and formed its junction in the plain of Fouli, the ancient Esdrelon. Kleber, having reconnoitred them, estimated their force at 40,000, of which he gave information to Bonaparte, who, finding himself thus interrupted, resolved, with whatever force he could draw off from the siege, to reach this multitude, and give them battle. His first care was to cut off their retreat by the bridge of Jacob. For this purpose, General Murat was detached with 1000 infantry, and a regiment of cavalry, on the 13th of April, and he

reached

reached the bridge by forced marches. Two diviſions only were left to carry on the ſiege. Bonaparte, with the reſt of his army, and eight pieces of cannon, came within ſight of Eſdrelon on the 16th. The village of Fouli was occupied by the Naplouſian infantry, and General Kleber's diviſion, ſurrounded by nearly 20,000 cavalry, had formed itſelf into two ſquares, for reſiſting their attacks, when Bonaparte appeared. A demi-brigade under Rampen and Vial was immediately diſpatched to the aſſiſtance of Kleber, who then charged the Turkiſh cavalry with the bayonet, attacked and carried the village of Fouli, while Rampen and Vial cut off their retreat by the mountains. Murat, having ſurpriſed and taken poſſeſſion of the poſt at Jacob's bridge, the rout of the Turkiſh army was complete. They threw themſelves behind Mount Tabor, and gaining the bridge at Giz-el-Mecanie during the night, they repaſſed the Jordan in diſorder, and retreated upon Damaſcus. Kleber having taken poſſeſſion of both the bridges of Jacob and Giz-el-Mecanie, and of the two forts of Saffet and Tabari, took poſt, with his diviſion, at Nazareth.

Bonaparte, with the reſt of the troops, returned to the camp; and preſſed on the works againſt Acre. The mine, which had been repaired, was ſprung, but one ſide only of the tower was demoliſhed by it, and the breach was not more practicable than before. But Bonaparte, anxious to know how that tower was connected with the reſt of the place, found means, while the confuſion occaſioned by the exploſion continued, to lodge thirteen grenadiers among the rubbiſh, under the ceiling of the firſt ſtorey of the tower. The Turks, however, having poſſeſſion of the upper ſtoreys,

reys, threw down inflammable matter, which forced the French grenadiers to retire. Next day, the beſiegers continued to batter the tower, and in the night they entered it a ſecond time, but were again driven out of it by the ſame means.

It was now the 27th of April, the thirty-eighth day from the opening of the trenches, and the French had yet received no heavy artillery. At length, three twenty-four pounders from Jaffa reached them, and ſix pieces of eighteen pounds from Damietta, which were ſoon planted on the batteries, to aſſiſt in levelling the obſtinate tower. Almoſt the whole of the cannon in front of the attack being diſmounted, the beſieged began to erect new batteries, and to form ſome exterior works, particularly two ravelines, to flank the neareſt approaches of the enemy. Theſe works were carried on under the direction of Colonel Phelipeaux, till he died in a fever, occaſioned by exceſſive fatigue, after which Colonel Douglas ſupplied his place. The French began to be ſhort of ammunition, and, as their fire ſlackened, the activity of the beſieged increaſed. A new mine, which was deſigned for blowing up the counterſcarp, oppoſite a ſecond breach, which had begun to be made on the eaſtern ſide, failed. Still Bonaparte was anxious to open a paſſage by the breach of the half-ruined tower. Once again the French got poſſeſſion of it, on the 7th of May, but were again driven from it.

On that day, a flotilla of corvettes and tranſports from Rhodes appeared, bringing reinforcements to the garriſon. Bonaparte, upon obſerving this, redoubled his efforts, that, if poſſible, he might get poſſeſſion of the place before they could be landed. He cauſed the attack to be renewed againſt the new works,

works, and, for ſome time, the French had the advantage. The curtine on the left of the tower having crumbled down, a breach was made which ſeemed practicable. The diviſion of General Lannes was ordered to make the attack. The column was led by General Rambeaud, who climbed the breach, and penetrated into the place with 100 grenadiers. They made a lodgement in the ſecond ſtorey of the tower, and when day-light appeared, in the morning of the 8th, it diſcovered the French colours flying on the outer angle of the tower. The reinforcements under Haſſan Bey were already in the boats, but were not got half way to land. In this critical moment, Sir Sydney landed his boats at the Mole, and led the crews up to the breach, which was ſtill defended by a few brave Turks, whoſe principal weapons were large ſtones, which, falling upon the heads of the aſſailants, made the foremoſt tumble down, and impeded the reſt.

When Gjezzar Pacha heard that the Britiſh ſeamen were at the top of the breach, he ran from his ſtation, and pulled them back with his own hand, crying out, that if any thing happened to his Engliſh friends, all was loſt. This occaſioned a ruſh of Turks to the ſpot, and thus time was gained for the arrival of the firſt body of Haſſan Bey's troops. There being now a ſufficient number to defend the breach, Sir Sydney propoſed that the Pacha ſhould open his gates, that a Turkiſh regiment which was armed with bayonets, and trained after the European manner, ſhould ſally forth, take the enemy in flank, get poſſeſſion of their third parallel, and there fortify themſelves, by turning the parapet outwards. The Turks ruſhed out, but, being unequal to ſuch a movement,

ment, were driven back with loſs into the town. This ſally, however, had one good effect; it drew the enemy's force from the breach, and obliged them to expoſe themſelves above their parapets, ſo that many of them fell.

A little before ſunſet, a maſſive column of French ſoldiers was ſeen advancing from their camp towards the breach. The Pacha determined, according to the Turkiſh mode, inſtead of defending the breach, to ſuffer them to enter to a certain number, and then to cloſe with them. The column thus mounted the breach without reſiſtance, and deſcended from the ramparts into the Pacha's garden, where the Turks, with the ſabre in one hand, and a dagger in the other, fell upon them: Their bayonets were not a match for theſe weapons, and, in a few minutes, many of them lay headleſs corpſes. The reſt made a precipitate retreat. General Lannes was carried off wounded, and General Rambaud was killed.

General Kleber's diviſion had been recalled, to take its turn in mounting the breach at Acre, where all the reſt had failed; but they found ſufficient employment in defending their own works. The Turkiſh regiment, who made the ſally above narrated, having been cenſured for their bad ſucceſs, made a freſh ſally the next night, and completely executed the orders Sir Sydney had given them, by making themſelves maſters of the enemy's third parallel; but ſome of them, preſſing forward to the ſecond, loſt ſome ſtandards there, though they ſpiked ſome cannon before their retreat. After a conflict of three hours, Kleber ſucceeded in recovering their works, and every thing returned to its former ſtate, except

except the loſs of men, which was conſiderable on both ſides.

Bonaparte now had recourſe to a ſtratagem, inconſiſtent with all the laws of honour and of war. Two attempts to aſſaſſinate Sir Sydney Smith within the town had failed. A flag of truce was now ſent into the town by the hand of an Arab, with a letter to the Pacha, deſiring a ceſſation of arms, for the purpoſe of burying the dead bodies, from which a ſtench aroſe, that had already proved fatal to many, and threatened the lives of all, on both ſides. While the commanders within the town were conſulting about the anſwer to be returned, and naturally off their guard, a volley of ſhells and ſhot announced a new attack. The garriſon, however, were prepared to receive it, and the attempt of the aſſailants ſerved only to increaſe the number of the dead, and to fix an indelible ſtigma upon the character of their General. The poor Arab would have been hewed in pieces, had not Sir Sydney prevented it. He was carried on board the Tigre, from whence he was ſent back with a meſſage to Bonaparte, which made his whole army aſhamed to have merited ſuch a reproof.

The French General had now loſt all hope of ſucceſs; indeed, all ſubordination in his army was at an end. The grenadiers abſolutely refuſed any more to mount the breach over the bodies of their dead companions. And nothing remained for him but an ignominious retreat, which was effected in the night between the 20th and 21ſt of May. He left all his heavy artillery behind him, either buried in the ſand, or thrown into the water, after burning the carriages. But they were all recovered by the Britiſh ſeamen, to the amount of 23 pieces. The how-

itzers and twelve-pounders, which he had conveyed by land-carriage, were put aboard country veſſels at Jaffa, to be conveyed to Egypt coaſt-wiſe, together with a number of wounded men, that embarraſſed the march of the army. Sir Sydney, expecting this, took care to be between Jaffa and Damietta, before the French army could have reached the former place. The veſſels having been ſent away without ſeamen to navigate them, and the wounded men being deſtitute of every neceſſary, they no ſooner ſaw the Britiſh ſhips, than they ſteered directly towards them, in hopes of receiving the ſuccours of humanity; nor were theſe hopes diſappointed. Sir Sydney gave them what relief he could afford, and ſent them forward to Damietta, where they might receive ſuch ſupply as it was out of his power to give to ſo many.

The ſiege of St John D'Acre is the moſt memorable of any that took place during the war, or perhaps of any that has happened in modern times. The place of itſelf was not worth the defending, nor was it capable of being defended according to the rules of art. But it was known to be the breach through which Bonaparte meant to march to further conqueſts, and that, if he had ſucceeded here, he had ſuch multitudes ready to join him, as might have brought Conſtantinople itſelf into danger, or done incalculable miſchief in any other part of the world, to which his efforts might be directed. For two whole months, incredible efforts were made by both parties. And it might be called one continued battle, interrupted only at ſhort intervals by the exceſſive fatigue of every individual on both ſides. Ten different times did the enemy attempt to ſtorm the place, and

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as often were driven back with great ſlaughter. The beſieged found that their moſt effectual means of defence were frequent ſallies to keep the beſiegers on the defence, and impede their works. It cannot be doubted that their final ſucceſs was chiefly owing to the ſkill and activity of Sir Sydney Smith, who, with a handful of Britiſh ſeamen and marines, here conquered the conqueror of Italy and of Egypt.

The Turks, indeed, on this occaſion, exerted themſelves beyond what they have done on any other, for a long time paſt. This was much owing to the example and influence of Sir Sydney Smith, and the few Britiſh who acted under him. But it was likewiſe owing, in part, to the animoſity they had conceived againſt the French, on account of the maſſacre of the priſoners taken at Jaffa, and their apprehenſion of a ſimilar fate, if they had fallen into their hands. After all, the Turks have been loudly exclaimed againſt, as having put to death all the French who fell into their hands. No doubt ſome of them did ſuffer, and, after the example which had been ſet them, it would have been no wonder if it had been ſo with them all. But Britiſh clemency prevailed to ſave the lives of ſome. One of whom relates, that while Sir Sydney Smith was interceding for him, after he had been ordered for execution, the Pacha cried out, with great emotion, *Juffa! Juffa!*

Sir Sydney found it neceſſary to wield the pen, aswell as the ſword, againſt his opponent. Bonaparte had found means to engage in his cauſe the Druſes, and the Chriſtians of Mount Lebanon. Sir Sydney ſent circular letters to their chiefs, accompanied with copies of Bonaparte's proclamation, in which he boaſts of having overthrown all Chriſtian eſtabliſhments, and

profeſſes himſelf the friend and protector of Iſlamiſm. He called upon them to chuſe between the friendſhip of a Chriſtian knight, and that of an unprincipled Renegado, and warmly exhorted them to return to a ſenſe of their duty. The conſequence was, that they ſent him two ambaſſadors, promiſing not only friendſhip, but obedience; and informing him, that they had ſent out parties to arreſt all ſuch as ſhould be found carrying proviſions or ammunition to the French army.

Bonaparte's retreat was conducted in a moſt diſorderly manner. He not only deſtroyed the magazines, and the defences of the ports, but alſo ravaged the country, burnt the harveſts, and laid every thing waſte, as he went along. Mean time, the remains of his army ſuffered much in their march. The whole road, from Acre to Gaza, was ſtrewed with the dead bodies of thoſe who had ſunk under fatigue, and the effects of their wounds. The Britiſh gun-boats annoyed their van, when they marched along the ſhore; and when they turned inland, to avoid the fire of the boats, the Arabs haraſſed their rear. Kleber, with his diviſion, formed the rear-guard; which, after having paſſed the Deſart, embarked at Tinch for Damietta. Bonaparte, leaving a ſtrong garriſon at Cattich, entered Cairo with the reſt of the army, on the 16th of June, twenty-ſix days after the raiſing of the ſiege.

The abſence of Bonaparte, and the great diminution of the French forces in Egypt, had raiſed the hopes of the adverſe party. Symptoms of revolt had appeared in the provinces. Parties of the Mamelukes, who had been driven into the weſtern deſarts, had deſcended into Lower Egypt, and endeavoured

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to excite the Arabs. General Dugua, commander of Cairo, had ſent detachments againſt different hordes of Arabs, whom they ſurpriſed and beat, in ſeveral rencounters. Acts of great cruelty were committed, villages were burnt, and other means of a ſimilar nature were uſed, to keep the country in ſubjection. Bonaparte, after his return, employed himſelf in repairing the loſſes of thoſe diviſions, which had conſtituted the army of Syria, and that with ſo much ſucceſs, that in three weeks they were in a capacity to enter upon new operations.

From the commencement of the year till the departure of the expedition into Syria, the troops under General Deſaix in Upper Egypt had been almoſt in continual action. The Mamelukes had diſputed every poſition, and had been ſucceſſively defeated, in eight or nine different places, till they were driven beyond Coſſeire. Deſaix was preparing for an expedition into the Oäſis, when he was informed that the Mamelukes had rallied, and formed themſelves into two diviſions. One of theſe, paſſing by Sababiar, were endeavouring to form a junction with Ibrahim Bey, who had again appeared at Gaza; and the other, under the command of Mourad Bey, were deſcending by the Natron lakes, to form a junction with the Arabs. The firſt was ſurpriſed at Sababiar by General Le Grange, who, having marched from Cairo on the 10th of July, made himſelf maſter of their camp, their baggage, and 1700 camels; themſelves he diſperſed in the Deſart. As for Mourad Bey, underſtanding that his couſin General Murat, after defeating thoſe Arabs to whom he meant to join himſelf, was marching to meet him, he retreated towards the pyramids of Gizeh.

Bonaparte,

Bonaparte, informed of this, marched from Cairo on the 14th of July, with a ſelect body of troops, ordering Murat to join him, with a view to cut off Mourad Bey's retreat. He reached the pyramids the ſame day that Mourad left them, on his retreat to Fayum. There he received advice from Alexandria, that a Turkiſh fleet of 100 ſail had anchored in the bay of Aboukir, on the 12th, and that a body of 3000 Turks had landed, and taken the fort of Aboukir by ſtorm. Immediately he changed his route, ſent orders to his Generals to march towards the place of landing, and to meet him at Rhamania, which was to be the firſt place of rendezvous. And there they all joined him on the 20th.

Deſaix continued the purſuit of Mourad Bey, put proviſions into the forts of Kene and Coſſeire, and ſent half of his cavalry back into Lower Egypt. He had orders to concert meaſures with Dugua at Cairo, and with Regnier, who commanded the frontier on the ſide of Syria. The garriſons of El-Ariſch and other places were ordered to retire into the forts, upon the appearance of a ſuperior force. Kleber was ſent to Roſetta; and, as Bonaparte was apprehenſive that the Turkiſh army might direct their march towards that place, he ſent thither a reinforcement under General Menou.

The Turks, after the ſurrender of Aboukir, had landed their artillery, and began to entrench themſelves upon the peninſula. Their force was eſtimated at about 15,000. Some Arabs had already joined them, and they ſeemed to be waiting for further reinforcements. Here Bonaparte determined to attack them. For this end, he aſſembled his army at the Wells, between Alexandria and Aboukir, and made

made diſpoſitions for the attack. Kleber, with a part of his diviſion, had reached Foua, and Menou had advanced to the paſſage of the Lake Madie, to cannonade any little embarkations that the Turks might ſend into the Lake.

The Turkiſh General Muſtapha Pacha defended the entrance of the peninſula by two lines of troops, and by entrenchments yet imperfect. The firſt line conſiſted of about 2000 men. Behind it was a village, defended by 1000, and four pieces of cannon. The ſecond line was at an equal diſtance behind the village, and only 200 yards in front of the village and fort of Aboukir. 7000 men, and 12 pieces of cannon, defended it. And the interval between the two lines was flanked by a few gun-boats drawn up near the ſhore on the left.

On the 25th, at day-break, the French army marched to the attack. General D'Eſtaing charged the right of the firſt line of the Turks with the bayonet; General Lannes marched upon their left. Murat, with his cavalry, attacked the centre, while, by detached ſquadrons, he cut off the retreat of both their wings. Thus, almoſt the whole of this line was either killed or drowned. The village was then attacked and carried, and the Turks were purſued to their ſecond poſition, which they prepared to defend with vigour. A redoubt, which had been taken from the French at the firſt landing, formed the centre of this poſition, and its principal ſtrength. Bonaparte, having made his diſpoſitions according to the nature of the ground, began the attack on both wings. The Turks ſallied out of their entrenchments to meet the enemy, but were driven back. The French followed them, and threw themſelves into

into the entrenchments, but were ſtopped by the fire of the redoubt, which took them in flank, and killed and wounded many of them. The cavalry had marched up to the redoubt, charged ſeveral times, and driven back the troops before it; but they could not ſuſtain the fire from the redoubt, and from the gun-boats at the ſame time. To decide the fortune of the day, General Lannes was ordered to march up to the redoubt, at the head of two battalions. He ſeizing a favourable moment, leapt into the ditch, climbed the parapet, and carried the work. Muſtapha Pacha did what he could to rally his troops, but in vain. They fled on every ſide, and threw themſelves into the ſea. Few of them could reach the veſſels, and the greateſt part of the Turkiſh army periſhed in the waves. Muſtapha himſelf, with 200 men, who had kept by him, was ſurrounded and taken.

The day after the battle, which had coſt the lives of many officers and privates of the French army, the fort of Aboukir was ſummoned, but refuſed to ſurrender. It was defended with great fury, during a bombardment of eight days. At the end of that time, the battering-pieces being placed on the counterſcarp, and the caſtle reduced to a heap of aſhes, the garriſon, to the number of 2000, with the ſon of the Pacha at their head, threw down their arms, and became priſoners. The French, on entering the place, found in it 300 wounded, and 1800 killed.

Bonaparte returned to Alexandria, where he had fixed his head-quarters before the battle. And, being informed of the ſituation of things in France, determined to return thither, expecting to find his account in the ſtruggles that were taking place between the

the directory and the legiſlative aſſemblies; but he meditated his departure in ſecret. After ſome time ſpent in paying the honours which he thought due to the officers who had fallen, either in the ſiege of Acre, or in the battle of Aboukir, and in giving directions concerning the reparation of the old forts, and the conſtruction of new ones, for the defence of the town and ports of Alexandria, he returned to Cairo. There he employed himſelf in conciliating the minds of the inhabitants, by pretending a ſtrong attachment to their religion, and celebrating the feſtival of their prophet, with a pomp which they had never before witneſſed.

At length having digeſted his plan, which he communicated only to General Berthier, he left his army, gave orders to Admiral Gantheaume to get ready two frigates, and two ſmaller veſſels, without acquainting him with their deſtination. A ſealed order was ſent to Beſſieres, chief of brigade, and his guards, which was only to be opened on a certain day and hour, and on a certain point of the ſea ſhore, commanding them to embark immediately, without any communication with thoſe who ſtaid behind. A ſimilar packet, which was only to be opened twenty-four hours after the departure of the ſhips, was left for General Kleber, appointing him Commander in Chief of the army. In the ſame manner was Deſaix continued in the command of Upper Egypt.

It was on the 24th of Auguſt that Bonaparte left the road of Aboukir, and ſailed for Corſica, his native iſland, where he arrived on the 1ſt of September. He continued there only ſeven days, and, unhappily for Europe, eſcaping a Britiſh ſquadron, which once appeared in ſight, he landed in the port of Frejus on the 14th of September. Berthier, upon his return with Bona-

parte, gave a moſt favourable account of the ſituation of the army in Egypt; but that account was ſoon contradicted by letters from the officers who were left there, which repreſented their condition as moſt deplorable. Some of theſe were intercepted, and publiſhed by authority. They ſtate, that the army, which, on its arrival in Egypt, had amounted to 31,000 effective men, was now leſs than two thirds of that number; that there was due to them more than ten millions of livres; that the revenues of the country amounted not to more than one fourth of the ſum at which they had been eſtimated; that all means of raiſing contributions had been exhauſted; that the Mamelukes and Arabs were as ſtrong as at the firſt; that the army of the Grand Vizier, amounting to 30,000 men, was advanced as far as Gaza; that the Engliſh were maſters of the Red Sea, as well as the Mediterranean; and that they would, in all probability, be obliged to make peace with the Ottoman Porte, and evacuate Egypt, without waiting for orders from France.

Soon after the appearance of theſe letters, diſpatches arrived from General Kleber, which ſeemed to take off ſomething from their credibility. Mourad Bey, having deſcended the Nile, as far as El-Ganayur, had been driven back by a French diviſion under General Morand; and being overtaken in his flight, a great number of his men were put to the ſword, 200 camels loaded with ſpoil, 100 horſes, and a great quantity of arms, were taken, and Mourad himſelf narrowly eſcaped. After this he wandered in the deſerts, making incurſions into the cultivated country, till a column, ſent in queſt of him, under General Boyer, came up with him in the deſert of Sediman. The Mamelukes and Arabs fought

fought with fury, but were put to flight, and purſued backward into the deſert.

Meanwhile the army of the Grand Vizier was advancing from Damaſcus to Gaza. Deſaix had been ordered to Cairo, by Kleber, from whence he had been ſent on the head of a diviſion, to the frontier of Syria, againſt the Grand Vizier. On the 24th of September, eighteen Turkiſh ſhips anchored off Damietta, which were ſucceſſively augmented, till, in the end of October, they amounted to fifty-three. This fleet was commanded by Sir Sidney Smith, on board the Tigre. The Turkiſh army took poſſeſſion of a tower at the mouth of the Nile, which they defended with one piece of artillery. Thus protected, 4000 men were landed on the 1ſt of November, and began to fortify themſelves on the point, between the right ſide of the Nile and the lake Menzala.

They had no ſooner made good their poſition, than they were attacked by General Verdier, who was encamped between Leſbe and the coaſt. Three thouſand of them were ſlain, and eight hundred taken priſoners, among whom were Iſmael Bey, the ſecond in command. Thirty-two ſtand of colours were taken, and five pieces of artillery. This diviſion was part of an army of 8000 Janiſſaries, which had ſailed from Conſtantinople. The reſt were not landed. The veſſels continued ſome time on the coaſt, but were obliged to quit it on account of the ſeverity of the weather. In the mean time, the French continued to make preparations for reſiſting the army of the Grand Vizier, while they endeavoured, by negotiation, to prevent a blow againſt which they had no hope of being able to defend themſelves. But of theſe things, an account will be given with more propriety afterwards.

CHAP. XVIII.

State of St Domingo—Surinam taken—Affairs in the East Indies—Tippoo's alliance with France—Preparations for war—March of General Harris—Hill forts taken—March of the Bombay army—Tippoo defeated Battle of Malavelly—Siege of Seringapatam—Negotiations with the Sultan—Seringapatam taken—Death of Tippoo—Partition of his dominions—Reflections—Naval affairs—Transactions in France—Disputes between the Directory and the Legislative Body—Sieyes chosen a Director—Revolution of the 30th of Prairéal—New levy, and forced loan—The law of hostages—Plan for overturning the Constitution—Removal of the Councils to St Cloud—Dissolution of the Directory, and dismissal of the Council of five hundred—Decree of Urgence—The three Consuls invested—Arrival of ambassadors from America—Dispute with the Senate of Hamburgh—Disagreement between Bonaparte and Sieyes—Abstract of the new constitution—Reflections—Meeting of the British parliament—Vote of thanks to commanding Officers—Militia reduction bill—Adjournment.

IN the Weſt Indies, no warlike operations took place during the year 1799, if we except a civil war, which raged with great violence for ſome time in St. Domingo, between the General in Chief Touſſaint Louverture, and Rigaud, General of the ſouthern departments. The negro General had conducted himſelf with more moderation towards emigrants and Britiſh ſubjects, than conſiſted with the views either of the French Directory or of Rigaud, who was ſaid to have received ſecret inſtructions to watch the other's motions;

tions; particularly, he had concluded a treaty with General Maitland, allowing Britiſh ſubjects to trade in the iſland. The firſt act of hoſtility was a proclamation publiſhed by Rigaud, in which he accuſed Touſſaint of protecting emigrants, even ſome whom Rigaud had ſent out of the colony; of permitting the Engliſh to trade in the ports; of encouraging falſe accuſations againſt him; and of giving orders for an attack to be made on that part of the colony where he commanded. In ſhort, he charged him with contempt of the laws, with trampling upon the intereſts of the republic, and the ſafety of the colony. Whether it was true that Touſſaint had given orders for an attack before this proclamation or not, it may eaſily be believed that he ſtood not upon ceremonies after it. The two Generals met in the field, where a bloody engagement enſued. Touſſaint obtained the advantage, and was about to follow it up, when an order arrived from France, which deprived Rigaud of his command, and veſted the whole authority in the hands of Touſſaint. By this means tranquillity was reſtored, and that liberty of trade which the republican zeal of Rigaud had preſcribed, was extended to the whole iſland. As France was too much occupied with other affairs to have leiſure to inquire into the ſtate of St Domingo, things were ſuffered to continue on this footing till the peace.

In America, the Britiſh forces took poſſeſſion of the Dutch colony of Surinam, with little oppoſition. Lieutenant General Trigge, and Vice-Admiral Lord Hugh Seymour, having received orders for that purpoſe, aſſembled ſuch a force as was thought ſufficient for the reduction of the ſettlement, and ſailed from Fort Royal in Martinique, on the 30th of July, in a ſquadron, conſiſting of two ſhips of the line, five frigates, and ſome ſmall

ſmall craft. They came to anchor in the mouth of the river Surinam on the 16th of Auguſt, and ſent a ſummons to the Governor that ſame evening, and a capitulation was ſigned on the 20th. Next day the fort of New Amſterdam was delivered up; the garriſon, conſiſting of 750 men, being allowed to march out with the honours of war.

In the Eaſt Indies, a conqueſt of much greater magnitude was atchieved. From the time that peace was concluded between Lord Cornwallis and Tippoo Saib, the Sultan of Myſore, that haughty prince, had borne his degraded ſituation with much impatience. In the month of June, 1798, there was produced at Bengal, a proclamation publiſhed by the French Governor of the Iſle of France, announcing an alliance entered into between the French government and the Sultan of Myſore, for the deſtruction of the Britiſh power in India. It was alſo declared, by credible witneſſes, that Tippoo had ſent ambaſſadors to the Iſle of France, who had been publicly received by the Governor; and that, when the above proclamation was publiſhed, inſtead of diſavowing its contents, they had openly ſpoken the ſame language. Theſe ambaſſadors were ſaid to be accompanied, in their return to Myſore, by an hundred Frenchmen, who went to offer their ſervices to Tippoo.

Theſe things could not but give much offence to the Britiſh government in India. The Marquis of Welleſley wrote ſeveral letters to Tippoo on the ſubject; and though he ſaid that the above mentioned ambaſſadors were only a company of merchants, who acted without his authority, and even without his knowledge; yet his anſwers were by no means ſatisfactory; more eſpecially, as he was known to be attempting to form alliances with

with neighbouring princes, and making other preparations for war. It was therefore thought neceſſary to aſſemble the armies on the coaſts of Coromandel and Malabar; but, from the diſperſed ſtate of theſe armies, and other circumſtances, this was found to be a work of time. While preparations were making for war, his Lordſhip did not neglect the uſe of means to have all differences ſettled by negotiation. As early as the 8th of November, 1798, he wrote a letter to the Sultan, propoſing that he ſhould receive Major Doveton, whom his Lordſhip would ſend for that purpoſe. Sundry letters paſſed between them, but the Sultan never gave his conſent to receive Major Doveton till the 13th of February, when his Lordſhip received a letter without a date, intimating that the Sultan was going out on a hunting expedition, and begging that his Lordſhip will diſpatch Major Doveton ſlightly attended.

But the Governor-general, fearing the approach of the Monſoons, had already ordered General Harris to enter the Myſore country with the army under his command; and therefore informed the Sultan, that the General was now the only perſon authoriſed to receive any communication he might think to make, with a view to the reſtoration of peace. The firſt movement of the army under General Harris, took place on the 11th of February. He was joined by the Nizan's contingent on the 18th. Next day he publiſhed a declaration, in name of the Governor General and his allies, and commenced hoſtilities, by ſending a detachment againſt three hill forts, which were taken without much oppoſition. The army, including the troops of the Nizan, was ſaid to amount to 37,000, horſe and foot. They moved forward till they came to the village of Anicul on the 12th of March. After they left this village,

lage, a body of the enemy's horſe appeared, but were ſoon diſperſed by a few diſcharges of the horſe artillery. On the 14th they came in ſight of Bangalore, when about 4000 of Tippoo's horſe again appeared; but after a few ſhots from the field pieces, they drew off. The army moved forward, without further oppoſition, till the 25th, when they encamped five miles eaſt from Malavelly, where Tippoo's army lay.

The Bombay army, under General Stewart, was in motion not long after that of Madras, under Harris. They marched from Connainore on the 21ſt of February, and aſcended the Ghauts on the 25th. On the 6th of March, Tippoo paſſed his own frontier, and attacked the rear guard of General Stewart's army, which conſiſted of 3,600 men, commanded by General Montreſor. The enemy's force amounted to 15,000, yet they were totally defeated, after a deſperate engagement of ſeven hours, with the loſs of 3000 of their men. Of the Britiſh there were 143 killed, wounded, and miſſing. After this defeat, Tippoo retreated to Seringapatam; from whence he advanced to meet General Harris, a few days after.

On the 27th, at day-break, that General marched his army on the great road leading to Malavelly, and ſoon came in ſight of the Sultan's army. A general engagement took place along the whole line; but it was not of long duration: the enemy ſoon retired to the heights on which their ſecond line was formed. And as he ſaw no advantage to be gained by the purſuit, Genetal Harris returned to his camp. Tippoo is ſaid to have loſt 1000 men in this action, though the loſs of the Britiſh was no more than 70. Such is the ſuperiority of European tacticks.

On the 3d of April, the army came within ſight of Seringapatam

Seringapatam. Tippoo had taken poſt, with his infantry, cloſe under the eaſt and ſouth faces of the fort. On the 5th the Britiſh army, after a ſhort march, took up its ground oppoſite the weſt face, at the diſtance of 3500 yards. The ſame evening an attack was made on the out-poſts; and on the 6th moſt of them were in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh. On the 9th General Harris received a letter from the Sultan, declaring that he had always adhered to the treaties, and demanding the reaſon of the hoſtilities committed againſt him. To this the General replied, by referring him to the letter that had been ſent him on the ſubject, by the Marquis of Welleſley. From this time matters continued in a ſtate of mutual preparation till the 13th, when all on a ſudden a heavy fire was opened upon the Britiſh, from the fort and batteries.

On the evening of the ſame day, General Floyd's ſignal guns were heard; and as he had advanced to meet the Bombay army, it was concluded that it was at no great diſtance. Accordingly, the next day, Generals Floyd and Stuart arrived, and took their ground in the rear of General Harris's encampment. On the 16th the Bombay army croſſed the Lavery, and took a ſtrong poſition on the other ſide. This river, which ſeparated the main encampment from the fort, was found to be almoſt dry, and its channel was a bare rock. At this time a party of the enemy was ſeen advancing towards a height on the weſt of the fort. As this poſt was of importance, it was attacked and carried by General Stewart, and afterwards connected, by intermediate poſts, with the main body.

On the 20th the Sultan ſent to General Harris an overture for peace. On the 22d the General returned for anſwer a draught of preliminaries; which were,

that he ſhould cede to the allies one half of his territories; pay two crores of rupees; renounce the alliance of the French; diſmiſs every Frenchman from his ſervice; receive ambaſſadors from each of the allies; and give, as hoſtages, four of his ſons, and four of his principal officers. His only reply to theſe hard terms, was an attack made by 6000 of his infantry, and Lally's corps of Frenchmen, upon the front of the Bombay army, the afternoon of the ſame day: but they were repulſed on all ſides, with the loſs of 6 or 700 men.

On the 24th the enemy's guns, on the weſt ſide of the fort, were ſilenced; but they continued to fire from two round towers. Againſt theſe a battery was opened, and they alſo were ſilenced by the 26th. On the 28th the Sultan acknowledged the receipt of the General's preliminaries, and propoſed to ſend two ambaſſadors to treat with him. But General Harris only replied, that he had already ſent him the only terms upon which he would treat.

The works of the beſiegers being all completed, they began on the 30th to batter in breach; and by the evening of the 3d of May, the breach was judged practicable. On the morning of the 4th, before day-break, the troops deſtined for the aſſault were placed in the trenches, that no extraordinary movement might give the enemy occaſion to ſuſpect the General's deſign, which was to attack them in the heat of the day, when they would be leaſt prepared for it. At one o'clock the troops moved from the trenches, led on by General Baird. Inſtantly they paſſed the glacis and the ditch, mounted the breach, and planted the Britiſh colours on the top of it, ſurmounting every obſtacle which was preſented, either by the difficulty of the paſſage, or by the enemy's reſiſtance. They were then divided into

two

two companies for clearing the ramparts, to the right and left, in which they were completely ſucceſsful. Reſiſtance was made from the palace, after all firing from the works had ceaſed. Two of Tippoo's ſons were there, who, upon aſſurance of ſafety, ſurrendered themſelves to the troops ſurrounding them; and guards were ſet for the protection of the family.

Soon after this it was reported that the Sultan had fallen. Search was made for his body. It was found late in the evening, in one of the gates, under a heap of ſlain, and ſoon after carried to the palace. Next day it was recognized by the family, and buried with the honours due to his rank, in the mauſoleum of his father. The two princes, for their greater ſecurity, were removed to camp, and every meaſure was taken, as ſoon as the Britiſh were in full poſſeſſion of the place, to prevent ſuch diſorders as are, at firſt, unavoidable in a place of ſuch conſequence, when taken by aſſault. The whole loſs of the Britiſh, in this affair, including Europeans and natives, was 83 killed, 297 wounded, and 6 miſſing. But among theſe there was more than a common proportion of officers.

The dominions of the late Sultan were divided into four parts of unequal extent, one of which, and that the principal, was annexed to the dominions of the Eaſt India Company; a ſecond was given to the Nizam; a third, of ſmall extent, to the Mahrattas, though they had taken no part in the war; and for the fourth, a deſcendant of the ancient Rajahs of Myſore was ſought out, and placed upon the throne. The ſons and relations of Tippoo were removed into the Carnatic.

Thus ended a war for which the Britiſh Government in India were much blamed by ſome, who would not believe that Tippoo had any deſign of making war

upon the Britiſh poſſeſſions, or had entered into any negotiations with France, for ſuch a purpoſe. But, beſides the evidence already mentioned, it deſerves to be obſerved, that a number of French officers were employed in Tippoo's army, who, being made priſoners, were found to have commiſſions from France. But if any doubt had remained concerning this matter, it was completely removed by certain papers which were found in the Sultan's palace after his death. By theſe it appears, that the Sultan, in a letter to the French Directory, plainly ſtates the embaſſy to the Iſle of France to be ſuch as it is above repreſented; that though he mentions no ground of complaint againſt the Britiſh Government, ſince the peace of 1792; yet the object of his alliance with France, was the total expulſion of the Britiſh from India; that a French army was to be landed at Porto Novo, to co-operate with him; though he was to begin his operations in the heart of the Carnatic, as ſoon as poſſible, without waiting for their arrival; and that the Portugueſe colonies in that quarter of India were to have been divided between Tippoo Sultan and the French. But Divine Providence diſappointed his deſigns; and he fell, as many others of a ſimilar character have done, and will do, the victim of his own treachery and ambition.

Nothing of great importance took place at ſea this year, except what has been already mentioned, as connected with the operations on land. It may, therefore, be ſufficient to mention, that beſides the Dutch fleet, taken poſſeſſion of by Admiral Mitchell, and the veſſels taken by Sir Sidney Smith, the Gazettes exhibit an account of 112 armed veſſels, taken from the enemy in the courſe of the year; ſix of which were frigates of 32 guns

guns or upwards. The reſt were privateers and other ſmaller veſſels.

Let us now look over to France, and take a brief view of the tranſactions of the year in that quarter. A full account of all the bickerings, intrigues, overturnings, and revolutions that took place in that great nation, would fill a large volume; but it will be neceſſary to take ſome notice of ſuch of them as affected the intereſts of Europe, or had a manifeſt influence upon the events of the war. Scarce one month elapſed without meſſages from the Directory to the legiſlative aſſemblies, concerning the decayed ſtate of the finances. A tax on ſalt had been propoſed to fill up the deficit, which was ſaid to amount to fifty millions. This gave great offence, as bearing a reſemblance to the gabelle, one of the moſt oppreſſive exactions of the old government. While this was under diſcuſſion in the Council of Five Hundred, another meſſage from the Directory informed them, that inſtead of 50 millions, the deficiency amounted to 120; that every department of the Republic was in a ſtate of diſſolution; and that, in making known the inſufficiency of the taxes eſtabliſhed, they diſcharged themſelves of all reſponſibility for the conſequences.

This menace led that council to adopt the meaſure; but it had not the ſame effect in the Council of Ancients, where it was aſſerted, that the ſupplies which had been granted had been adequate to all the demands of the public ſervice; and that further grants would only ſwell the civil liſt of depredation, and accordingly the tax on ſalt was rejected. On this occaſion a difference broke out between the Directory and a majority of the Legiſlative Body, that never could be healed, but iſſued in the ruin of both. The Directors and their creatures were

were charged with a multitude of crimes. To gratify their avarice and ambition, innocent perſons were ſequeſtrated, impriſoned, and baniſhed to Guiana, where they ſoon became victims to a peſtilential climate. But it was chiefly the progreſs of corruption, and the delapidation of the public money, that incenſed all minds againſt them. It was even ſaid, and moſt people believed it, that, in the courſe of the laſt year, one half of the revenue voted for the ſervice of the republic had been embezzled. As the time for the election of the new third approached, each party took ſuch meaſures as ſeemed calculated to promote their reſpective views on that occaſion. But the body of the electors rejected the candidates of both; and named, for the moſt part, men whoſe political opinions were not yet formed, as themſelves had never been publicly known.

But the great ſtruggle was about the choice of a new Director. The lot of removal had fallen upon Rewbell, who had been, above all his colleagues, the object of public deteſtation; and Sieyes was choſen in his place. As he was known to be a man of abilities, and was not expected to take part in their crimes, the Directory conſidered this choice as the death's-wound of their power and influence. In the mean time, the council appointed a commiſſion to examine the means of providing for the exigencies of the moment; and upon their report, a meſſage was ſent to the Directory, demanding a detailed account of the adminiſtration of the late miniſter, Scherer; who was ſaid to have ruined one army by his villany as a miniſter, and another by his incapacity as a General. It was ſtated, among other things, that he had exacted pay for 68,000 cavalry, while 40,000 were wanting to make up the number. Addreſſes were preſented to the legiſlative aſſemblies againſt

gainſt him, from ſundry departments on the frontiers of Italy. One, more violent than the reſt, came from the citizens of Chamberry, and became the ſignal for an attack upon the directorial party. The council ordered this addreſs to be printed, and ſent to a commiſſion, and to the Directory. The Directory took no notice of it; but appointed the man whom it denounced as a traitor, to be Inſpector-General of the troops in Holland.

After various other manœuvres, the Council ſent a meſſage to the Directory, ſtating that it was the duty of the Executive Government to give notice to the Legiſlature of any danger that might threaten the Republic; that it was notorious that the Republic was now in great danger, both from enemies without and from inſurrections within; yet the Directory had never given them any account of the matter: and demanding information on the ſubject. This was accompanied by an addreſs to the French people, which was conſidered as an appeal to them againſt the uſurpation and tyranny of the Directory. A conſpiracy was now formed for the excluſion of three members of the Directory, Merlin, Lepeaux, and Treilhard; Barras, though equally corrupt, had averted the ſtorm, by pretending to accord with the views of the oppoſition. Treilhard was found to have been choſen contrary to an article of the Conſtitution; he therefore gave up the conteſt and retired; and Gohier, who had once been Miniſter of Juſtice, was choſen to ſucceed him. The two other obnoxious members, after ſtruggling a little longer, were perſuaded to reſign their places, upon a promiſe of impunity for what was paſt. This was called the revolution of the 30th of Praireal.

The Councils now proceeded to fill up the vacant places

places in the Directory; and the choice fell upon Roger Ducos, an Ex-Legiſlator, and Moulins, a General raiſed from the loweſt of the people during the reign of terroriſm. The choice of theſe two inſignificant men was a kind of compromiſe with the other party in the Councils, as it was expected that the wiſdom of Sieyes would now guide all his colleagues. The overthrow of the Directors was the ſignal for denunciation againſt their agents. Scherer was, above all others, an object of public indignation; but he evaded its effects by flight.

The new Directory were employed in probing the wounds of the Republic, and deviſing remedies for them. On the 26th of June, they ſent a meſſage to the Council, in which they pointed out the dangerous ſtate of the Republic, from a variety of circumſtances, and invited the Legiſlature to adopt ſuch methods as might avert from the political body the diſſolution with which it was threatened. This meſſage the Council ſent to the Commiſſion of Eleven; who propoſed to the Aſſembly a law, the chief articles of which were, the levy of the conſcripts of every claſs, from the age of 20 to 25, who were immediately to be put upon actual ſervice; and a loan of an hundred millions, to be raiſed from the richer citizens, upon the mortgage of the national domains yet unſold. The adoption of this law was accompanied with another addreſs to the people, inviting them to co-operate with their repreſentatives in the work of regeneration; or, in other words, to ſubmit without repining to all their requiſitions and exactions. After this, buſineſs went on for ſome time much in the uſual mode. It would but weary the reader's patience, to recite the tumultuous procedure of the Jacobins in Paris, and through the different departments, and the methods taken by the Government to

ſuppreſs

ſuppreſs them; of a royaliſt army amounting to 16,000 which had been put in motion by the intrigues of the Jacobins in the ſouth, and which was diſperſed by a republican army, with the loſs of 1000 men, and its commander; of a formation of a party in the councils, who were for ſuſpending the conſtitution, that they might get the whole power into their own hands: of the accuſation againſt the four ex-directors, which was firſt negatived, and afterwards decreed by the Council; and of various other ſteps, by which the great nation had been brought into that critical ſtate in which Bonaparte found it on his arrival from Egypt, and by which his project of making himſelf abſolute in the Government of the country was facilitated.

But it may be neceſſary to take more particular notice of the famous law, called the Law of Hoſtages, paſſed on the 12th of July. By this law it was decreed, that when any department or commune was in a ſtate of diſorder, the relations of emigrants, and ci-divant nobles, ſhould be reſponſible for all robberies and aſſaſſinations that ſhould be committed; that the adminiſtrators of departments ſhould take hoſtages of theſe claſſes, when they thought it proper; that ſuch hoſtages ſhould ſurrender themſelves within ten days, under pain of conſtraint by force; and if they fled, ſhould be puniſhed as emigrants; that if any public functionary, or purchaſer of national domains, ſhould be murdered or carried off, four of theſe hoſtages ſhould be baniſhed for every perſon ſo murdered or carried off, beſides paying a fine of 6000 livres into the public treaſury, 6000 to the widow, and 3000 to the children of the perſon ſo aſſaſſinated. This indemnity was alſo to extend to every perſon mutilated; and this reſponſibility was to be extended to all damage done to property.

This law, truly worthy of the wiſdom and humanity of republicans, together with the law concerning the forced loan, had raiſed a great fermentation through all France. In the weſtern departments, it was the ſignal almoſt of univerſal revolt. About the latter end of Auguſt a general inſurrection broke out in the department of Mayenne, where the inſurgents took poſſeſſion of ſeveral towns, depoſed the Conſtituted Authorities, took republican hoſtages, and, by public advertiſements, declared themſelves for the old government. So rapidly did the ſpirit of inſurrection ſpread, that in a ſhort time, no leſs than twenty departments were infected with it. By paſſing theſe two obnoxious laws, and ſtill more by obſtinately ſupporting them after their bad effects were viſible, both the Directory and the Legiſlative Body had rendered themſelves ſo odious, that their final diſſolution was conſidered as a deliverance to the nation.

Sieyes, it ſeems, was never perfectly pleaſed with the conſtitution of the third year, and now he laid a plan for overturning it. General Joubert was the man fixed upon to carry it into execution. But Joubert had not courage enough to engage in ſuch an undertaking. Moſt opportunely Bonaparte arrived in Paris, and the plan was communicated to him. He ſeemed to approve it, reſolving to turn it to the advancement of his own purpoſes. After deliberating between themſelves, they imparted as much of their deſign as they thought proper to twenty members of both Councils. Theſe, after taking an oath of ſecrecy, diſperſed, to inſtruct each one ſuch friends as he could depend upon. Letters of convocation were, of conſequence, ſent to ſuch members of the Council of Elders as might be truſted, who aſſembled in their uſual place of meeting on the 9th of Novem-

November (the 18th of Brumaire, according to the French calender) at eight o'clock in the morning. The majority were ignorant of the cauſe of their meeting; but they were told by thoſe who were in the ſecret, that a great Jacobin conſpiracy was juſt ready to break out; that it would be neceſſary to remove the Legiſlative Body to ſome place where they might deliberate in ſecurity, and that Bonaparte was ready to execute whatever decree he ſhould be charged with. A decree was accordingly paſſed, removing both the Councils to St Cloud, where they were to meet the following day, and charging Bonaparte to take meaſures for the ſecurity of the national repreſentation.

Mean time, to keep the people of Paris quiet, the walls were covered with proclamations, which had been prepared and printed beforehand; the gardens of the Thuilleries were filled with troops, and the principal poſts in the city and its environs were entruſted to ſuch Generals as Bonaparte could confide in. The three Directors who were not in the ſecret were aſtoniſhed to find the decree of the Council ſent them in the morning. Sieyes and Ducos, who were waiting for it, repaired to the Thuilleries. They invited Barras to give in his reſignation. He gave them fair words, but was too cautious to give a direct anſwer at that time. The other two Directors, Gohier and Moulins, repaired to the council-room of the Directory, where being informed how matters ſtood, they reſolved to have recourſe to military force, and gave orders to ſurround Bonaparte's houſe; but were confounded to find that the guard had deſerted, and gone over to the other ſide. Moulins jumped out of a window and eſcaped; Gohier went to the Thuilleries, and, being Preſident of the Directory, put their ſeal to the decree of removal to St Cloud; but

was afterwards put under a guard in the palace of the Directory. Sieyes and Ducos gave in their reſignations, and Barras ſent his ſoon after.

Next day both Councils met at the village of St Cloud. When ſome of thoſe who were in the ſecret propoſed to the Council of Five Hundred, the meaſures which had been concerted, it occaſioned a tumultuous outcry of *No Dictator*, and *Long live the Conſtitution!* After this, it was propoſed that all the members ſhould renew their oath of fidelity to the conſtitution, which was done accordingly, not one daring that moment to refuſe it. In the mean time, the Council of Elders was alſo met, and Bonaparte made them a long harangue, ſetting forth the danger of the Republic, and the neceſſity of ſpeedy meaſures. The Council of Five Hundred had juſt finiſhed taking the oath, when the great General, accompanied by a few officers and ſoldiers, entered the hall, but without arms, as intending to addreſs the aſſembly. Inſtantly he was aſſailed with cries of *Down with the tyrant, out of the law—kill him, kill him!* He retired, and his brother Lucien Bonaparte, being then their Preſident, mounted the tribune, complained of the treatment the General had received, and then reſigned his office. Upon this, twenty grenadiers opened the doors, and conducted Lucien out of the hall. And ſoon after an officer came forward, accompanied by a numerous guard, and, mounting the tribune, cried, 'Repreſentatives, withdraw; the General has given the order.' Some not readily complying, another officer called out, 'Grenadiers, forward.' And the Legiſlators were driven out at the point of the bayonet.

While theſe things were tranſacted in the Council of Five Hundred, the Council of Elders were deliberating upon

upon the proposal that Bonaparte had made them of setting aside the Constitution; when news was brought of the violence used against the General in the other Council, and of the attempt that a deputy of the name of Arens had made to poinard him. Upon this they formed themselves into a secret committee, and were proceeding to deliberate when a messenger announced to them the dissolution of the other assembly. It was then time to present a report which five of their members had prepared, stating, that as this assembly was now become the whole of the national representation, and as the executive government existed no longer, an executive provisionary commission should be named, consisting of three members; that the Legislative Body should be adjourned till the 1st of Nivose; that an intermediary commission should be formed to preserve the rights of national representation; and that the assembly should now adjourn till nine in the evening, to take these measures into consideration. This project was adopted, and the assembly was adjourned accordingly.

Most members of the other Council had fled to Paris; but a few of those who favoured the revolution were collected at nine in the evening, with Lucien Bonaparte at their head, notwithstanding his resignation, and called themselves the Council of Five Hundred. The Council of Elders met at the same time, and both Councils adopted what was called a decree of urgence, consisting of sixteen articles. By it the directorial authority was abolished, a consular executive of three persons was appointed, viz. Bonaparte, Sieyes, and Roger Ducos. A legislative committee of superintendance from each council, consisting of twenty-one members, was appointed; and power was given to

to the Consuls to call an extraordinary meeting of the Councils, for the ratification of peace, or in case of public danger.

This decree was immediately followed by a proclamation, informing the people of the changes that had taken place, and of their ostensible causes. The two legislative commissions were then chosen; and the three Consuls, after taking an oath of fidelity to the sovereignty of the people, to the French Republic one and indivisible, to liberty, equality, and the representative system, were invested with their office, and both assemblies were adjourned till the 20th of February, but in reality never to meet more. The Consuls entered upon their functions the next day, in the palace of the Luxembourg; and one of their first acts was the removal of such of the ministers as were not thought friendly to their views. The Legislative Commissions opened their sittings at the same time, and the first object that engaged their attention was the repeal of the law of hostages, and that concerning the forced loan. All this time the utmost tranquillity was maintained in Paris. Bonaparte, by artfully concealing every part of his intention except that of suppressing the Jacobins, had induced all the citizens except those who belonged to that faction, to wish for success to his measures.

How much the Consuls were disposed to observe the oath they had taken, appeared by an edict published by them eight days after the revolution, by which they condemned 37 citizens to banishment to Guiana, and 22 more to the isle of Oleron, without any shadow of a trial. This raised such a fermentation in the minds of the people, that the new despots found themselves obliged first to modify, and afterwards to repeal it.

They

They next employed themselves in giving some relief to those priests who had been the chief objects of directorial persecution, and to some others who had suffered by the tyranny of the abolished government.

About this time three ambassadors from the United States of America arrived in France, to open again the negotiation for putting an end to the differences subsisting between the two Republics. The president, Mr Adams, anxious to prevent an open rupture with France, but at the same time willing to avoid such disgraceful usage as the former ambassadors had experienced, nominated these three, one of whom was already in Europe, viz. Mr Murray, who was ambassador at the Hague. The other two, Meff. Elsworth and Henry, were not to leave America, till they had assurance from the Directory, that they should be received in their characters, and enjoy the privileges granted by the law of nations; and till one or more ministers were appointed to treat with them. Having received such assurances as the Directory had to give them, they arrived at Paris just after the Directory had breathed its last.

Another dispute with the Senate of Hamburgh descended as an heirship from the Directory to the Consulate. Four Irish rebels had been arrested in that city, two of whom, Napper Tandy and Blackwell, had got commissions in the French army. The Court of Britain demanded that they should be delivered up to justice. The French Government claimed their liberty as citizens of France. The senate of Hamburgh, after long hesitation, complied with the demand of Britain; in consequence of which the Directory laid an embargo on all Hamburgh vessels in their ports, recalled their agents commercial and diplomatic from Hamburgh,

Hamburgh, and ordered every agent of the government of Hamburgh to quit France. The senate of that city sent a letter to Bonaparte, containing an apology for what they had done; but the Consul was as implacable as the Directory had been.

But the principal business that employed both the Consuls and the Commissions, was revising and correcting a constitution which Sieyes had manufactured for them. Some articles in this draught of a constitution became matter of serious controversy between the two Consuls, Sieyes and Bonaparte. These two men were of characters too similar to keep long together. The soldier was as haughty as the priest was obstinate. Which of the two should be the first man in the state, was a matter of no small importance. Each had his partizans; but the influence of Bonaparte prevailed. After various meetings and consultations of the Consuls and Commissions, the Constitution received the sanction of the whole, and was proclaimed with due solemnity through Paris on the 24th of December, without waiting for the approbation of the people.

This Constitution is too long to be here inserted. Its great lines are the following: At the head of the Government is the First Consul, to whom it belongs to promulgate laws; to name and revoke at pleasure members of the Council of State, ambassadors, ministers, officers by land and sea, &c. In other acts of government the other two Consuls have a consultative voice. Under the direction of the Consuls is a Council of State, charged with drawing up the plans of laws and regulations in the public administration. A conservatory senate, to consist of 80 members of 40 years of age, to continue during life, were to confirm or annul every act referred to them by the tribunate

or

or the Government. The Tribunate was to consist of 100 members of 25 years of age, to be renewed by fifths every year. Their business was to discuss the plans of such laws as should be proposed, and to vote for their adoption or rejection. It might give its opinion concerning laws to be made or abuses to be corrected; but this opinion was to be followed up by no necessary consequence. The Legislative Body was to consist of 300 members of 30 years of age at least, to be renewed by fifths every year. Their business was to enact laws, determining by secret scrutiny, but without any discussion, such plans as were debated in its presence by orators appointed by the Tribunate and by Government. All public functionaries were to be chosen by the First Consul, from lists composed in the following manner. The citizens of every commune were to make up a list, amounting to one tenth of their number, of the persons most fit for conducting public affairs. From this list the public functionaries of the communal district were to be taken. Those citizens who were in the communal lists of a department were to choose a tenth part of their number, and out of that list were the functionaries of the department to be chosen. They whose names were in the departmental lists were in like manner to choose a tenth part of their number, and from these the national functionaries were to be selected.

Bonaparte was appointed First Consul, Cambaceres Second Consul, and the Third Consulate was given to Lebrun. As Sieyes was likely to have been a troublesome colleague, Bonaparte threw a bone in his teeth, by giving him an estate of L. 600 sterling a-year out of the national domains. Sieyes swallowed the bait,

and upon that condition retired to a private station. Soon after, that national estate was found to be the property of a private citizen, and Sieyes lost it; but his loss was made up by a sum of money of three times its value. His colleague, Ducos, who had no other merit than a blind obedience to the will of the other, was rewarded with a similar appointment. These two, together with the two new Consuls, were to name a majority of the Senators, and these were to chuse the rest.

From the above sketch it is manifest that the attempt to establish a democracy in France has issued, as similar attempts have done in other countries, in the establishment of the most absolute despotism. Bonaparte, by this constitution, has really as much power in his hands, as ever was claimed by any of the kings of France. They have not even a shadow of national representation. They have a senate, but it chooses its own members; they have a tribunate that may debate, but can decide nothing. They have a legislative assembly, or something so called, but none of its members can open a mouth in any matter that comes before them. No law can be proposed but by the First Consul; nor is it to be expected that any law will be rejected which he proposes, when none are allowed to discuss it but his own hired orators. Instead of a republic one and indivisible, France is again become an absolute monarchy. Instead of her citizens being on a footing of equality, only one in ten of them is eligible to any public office. And instead of enjoying that liberty for which they pretend to have been struggling, this constitution places them in a state of abject subjection to a military despot with 500,000 men at his back. Yet even this constitution does not fully

fully exhibit either the extent of Bonaparte's power, or the measure of degradation which the French have suffered. The Constitution has in various respects been infringed and altered. Instead of being Consul for ten years, according to the Constitution, he is now Consul for life, with power to name his successor. And he wants nothing but the name of being 'Emperor of the Gauls.'

The British Parliament met this year as early as the 24th of September. His Majesty, in his speech, informed them, that the principal reason of his calling them together so early, was that he might be enabled to avail himself, to a further extent, of the voluntary services of the Militia. He informed them of the success of the allies in Italy, the restoration of the kingdom of Naples, the defeat of the French in Syria, and the conquest of the Mysore. And expressed his hopes of a successful issue of the expedition to Holland.—The Address was carried without opposition.

One of the first transactions in Parliament, was a vote of thanks in both Houses, to Lord Mornington and the Generals, Officers and Soldiers, who had been employed in the taking of Seringapatam:—to Lieutenant General Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and the other Generals, Officers and men, who had carried the Helder point;—to Admiral Mitchel, and the Officers and Sailors, who acted under him, in taking possession of the Dutch fleet; and to Sir Sidney Smith, for his unparalleled bravery at St John d'Acre.

In conformity with that part of his Majesty's speech which referred to the Militia, a bill was early brought in, for the reduction of the Militia forces of the kingdom; and to enable his Majesty to accept the services of an additional number of Volunteers from the differ-

ent Militia regiments. The design of the Bill was, by reducing the supplementary Militia to obtain a body of Volunteers, ready trained, to be sent over to Holland, to assist the forces already there, in delivering the United Provinces from the yoke of France. The Bill, after some debate, passed through all the usual forms in both Houses; but the turn that affairs took in Holland soon rendered it nugatory. After passing this Bill, and arranging the necessary supplies, both houses adjourned, on the 12th of October, till the 21st of January the next year.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIX.

Bonaparte's Letter to his Majesty—Lord Grenville's answer—Both laid before Parliament—Debates on that subject—Debates on the Union with Ireland, in the Irish Parliament—and in the British—The Union effected—Debates on the Expedition to Holland—Parliament prorogued—The King's life in danger—Proceedings in France—Bonaparte's second letter—The Answer—Insurrection in the West—Subdued—Departmental regulations—The Constitution accepted—Army of reserve—Miserable state of the Army in Genoa—Massena's efforts to relieve them—Commencement of the Campaign—Austrians take Savona—are defeated at Montefaccio—Battle of Sassels—Blockade of Genoa—Dreadful famine—Genoa surrendered—Operations on the Rhine—French pass that river—Battle of Stockach, and of Engen—of Moskirch—of the Riss—Austrians retire to Ulm—Battle of Hockstet, and of Newburg—Ulm invested—March of the Army of reserve into Italy—Battle of Romano—The French pass the Tesino, and enter Milan—Pavia taken, and Piacenza—Battle of Montebello,—and of Marengo—Armistice concluded in Italy,—and on the Rhine—Prince Charles resumes the command of the Austrian army—Battle of Hohenlinden—Austrians pursued by the French—Consternation at Vienna—Armistice—French invade Tuscany—Defeating the Austrians,—they pass the Mincio, and the Adige,—and pursue them to Salvaroza—Armistice of Treviso—Insurrection in Tuscany, and Piedmont—Peace of Luneville.

ONE of the firſt acts of Bonaparte's Sovereignty was to ſend over, by a ſpecial Meſſenger, a letter immediately

immediately addreſſed to the King of Great Britain, intimating, that, being called to the firſt Magiſtracy of the Republic, he had thought proper to make a communication of it to his Majeſty, aſking emphatically, if the War was to be eternal; ſignifying, that he ſhewed his deſire to contribute, a ſecond time, to a general pacification, by a ſtep diſengaged from thoſe forms, which might be neceſſary to diſguiſe the dependence of weak ſtates, but in ſtrong ones, only covered a deſire of deceiving one another; and concluding, that the fate of all civilized nations was involved in the termination of the war.

To this extraordinary communication Lord Grenville returned an anſwer, ſignifying, that his Majeſty, ſeeing no reaſon to depart from thoſe forms which have long been eſtabliſhed, had commanded him to return in his name an official note. In this note it is declared, that his Majeſty had given frequent proofs of his deſire for the reſtoration of peace; that he had only been contending for the rights and happineſs of his ſubjects; that he ſaw no proſpect of removing the neceſſity of ſuch contending, by entering into negociation with thoſe whom a freſh revolution had inveſted with power in France, while the cauſes of the war continued, and that ſyſtem was purſued, to which the Netherlands, the United Provinces, and the Swiſs Cantons had been ſacrificed; by which Germany and Italy had been ravaged, and his Majeſty compelled to contend for the independence and exiſtence of his kingdom; that his Majeſty could not rely on mere general profeſſion, ſuch having been made by all who had been at the head of affairs in France; that his Majeſty will be glad when it ſhall appear that the neceſſity of reſiſtance ſhall be at an end; but this could only be by the evidence of facts;—that the beſt

pledge

pledge of it would be the reſtoration of the ancient line of Princes in France, though his Majeſty does not limit the poſſibility of peace to this mode, nor make any claim to preſcribe to France what ſhall be the form of her Government; but that his Majeſty would concert with his allies, the means of a general peace, as ſoon as he ſhould ſee a probability of obtaining ſecurity for his ſubjects, for his allies, and for Europe, of which, as yet he ſaw no appearance.

Both the letter of Bonaparte and Lord Grenville's anſwer were laid before Parliament, in a Meſſage from his Majeſty, on the 22d of January 1800. But it was the 28th before they were taken into conſideration the Houſe of Lords. When Lord Grenville moved an addreſs of thanks to his Majeſty, the Duke of Bedford moved a counter-addreſs, expreſſing regret that his Majeſty had been adviſed to reject the overtures from the enemy; and imploring him to renew the Negotiations for peace. On the miniſterial ſide, it was argued, that to make peace with France in her preſent unſettled ſtate, was to incur all the riſks of an uncertain truce, without one of the benefits even of a temporary peace; that the Republic had always profeſſed her love of peace, her diſinclination to conqueſts, and her reſpect for the independence of all Governments; but had ſhewed her love of peace, only by making war with almoſt every nation in Europe; her diſinclination to conqueſt, by ſeizing the Netherlands, by the invaſion of Italy, and the wrongs of Switzerland; and her reſpect for other Governments, by overturning all to whom her power had reached. It was ſaid that, ſince the revolution, France had given proofs of her perfidy to every power that had treated with her; and that a general diſregard to all treaties was one of the principles on which ſhe acted,

ted. With regard to Bonaparte, there could be no truſting to his profeſſions or engagements. He had impoſed upon France, at the mouth of the cannon, the very conſtitution which he had now deſtroyed. He had made treaties with Sardinia, Tuſcany, Modena, and other petty ſtates of Italy and broken them all. To the Porte he had declared, that he had no intention to take poſſeſſion of Egypt, while to his own Generals he ſaid that this was his intention, and to the Egyptians, that he did it with the conſent of the Porte. In a word, he had multiplied violations of every moral and religious tie. And was ſuch a man to be truſted, when he came forward with offers of pacification? It was ſaid that whatever atrocities had been committed by France, had uſually been effected by a ceſſation of hoſtilities; that ſuch a ſuſpenſion might be advantageous to France as it would open her ports to introduce naval ſtores, and other things of which ſhe was in want, and give her an opportunity of bringing back her troops from Egypt, to augment her armies; but it could be of no advantage to us. It was aſked, in a word, if any friend to Britain, upon ſuppoſition ſhe had made peace with Bonaparte, would adviſe her to diſarm? Or what ſecurity had we of the continuance of his Power?

On the ſide of oppoſition it was ſaid, that the ſame objections might have been urged againſt opening the negociations at Liſle; that it was abſurd and provoking to ſay that if France would reſtore her ancient line of Princes, this country would treat with her, thus making the wild ſcheme of reſtoring monarchy in France *ſine qua non* of negociation, for though the miniſter had denied the charge, that was the native inference to be drawn from his words. If we waited for a more favourable opportunity of negociating, was it to be obtained

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by railing at Bonaparte? Could our allies be depended upon? Was there one of them who would not accept a ſeparate peace, if they could obtain it? Much was ſaid about the diſtreſſed ſtate of this country, through the ſcarcity and dearth of proviſions. Miniſtry were ſeverely cenſured for the diſaſtrous expedition to Holland. It was ſaid that his Majeſty had declared, he would always be willing to treat when the enemy ſhould evince a diſpoſition for it; and that the only way to prove the ſincerity of Bonaparte's profeſſions was to enter into a negociation with him. And it was intimated, that if the people of this country ſhould continue to be oppreſſed with taxes to carry on the war, like the people of France, they would look up to themſelves, and redreſs their own grievances.

When the queſtion came to be put upon the Duke of Bedford's motion, there appeared only ſix contents; the non-contents were 79, and 13 proxies. The original motion was then put and carried. Owing to Mr Pitt's indiſpoſition, the King's meſſage was not taken into conſideration in the Houſe of Commons till the 3d of February. The arguments on both ſides were much ſimilar to thoſe employed in the other houſe, urged with all the uſual eloquence of the principal ſpeakers. No amendment was propoſed; and the addreſs of the ſame tenor with that from the other Houſe, was carried by 265 votes againſt 64.

The next thing that engaged the attention of Parliament, was the very important affair of the Union with Ireland. The propoſitions adopted in the laſt ſeſſion, as the baſis of ſuch an Union, were laid before the Parliament of Ireland, by a meſſage from the Lord Lieutenant, on the 5th of February. The debates on the ſubject were carried on with ſuch vehemence in the

Houſe of Commons, that it occaſioned a duel between Mr Corry the Chancellor of the Exchequer in Ireland, and Mr Grattan, who had long been a leader in the oppoſition. But in the iſſue, the Friends of Union prevailed; and the firſt propoſition was adopted by 161 againſt 115. As the diſcuſſion proceeded, the oppoſition became weaker and weaker. The laſt ſtruggle was made on the 13th of March, when Sir John Parnell moved to petition his Majeſty to call a new Parliament, that the ſenſe of their conſtituents might be fully known; but this motion was rejected by a majority of 46. In the houſe of Lords, the buſineſs went on more ſmoothly. On the 24th of March, that houſe adopted all the articles of the Union, with very few alterations. And on the Friday following, both Houſes waited on his Excellency, with a joint addreſs to that effect, which was afterwards tranſmitted to his Majeſty.

On the 2d day of April, the Duke of Portland delivered to the Houſe of Peers, a Meſſage from his Majeſty, communicating to them the addreſs of the Iriſh Parliament, and recommending to the Houſe to take ſuch ſteps as might beſt tend to the ſpeedy execution of a work ſo intereſting to the whole Britiſh Empire. This meſſage was taken into immediate conſideration; an addreſs of thanks was voted; the papers were ordered to be printed, and taken into conſideration on the 21ſt. On that day Lord Grenville moved, that the Houſe reſolve itſelf into a Committee on the Iriſh Addreſs and Reſolution. The motion was agreed to, after ſome objections made by Lord Holland, againſt the principle of the Union, as deſtructive of the independence of Ireland; and the Houſe having reſolved itſelf into a Committee accordingly, the three firſt propoſitions were immediately agreed to. After ſundry adjournments

journments and much diſcuſſion, all the other propoſitions were alſo agreed to with ſome amendments.

On the ſame day, the 21ſt of April, the ſame affair came under conſideration in the Houſe of Commons; and ſimilar proceedings took place there. The diſcuſſions continued till the 5th of May, when the Houſe having agreed to all the reſolutions, Mr Pitt moved an Addreſs to his Majeſty, informing him, that they had got through the meaſure of a legiſlative Union with Ireland, in conformity with the principle laid down in his Majeſty's meſſage. The Addreſs being drawn up and approved, it was moved that copies of it, and of the reſolutions they had paſſed, ſhould be communicated to the Houſe of Lords, in a conference to be demanded for that purpoſe. The conference accordingly took place on the 6th; the reſult of which was, that the Commons agreed to the amendments made by the Peers, and the Lords concurred in the Addreſs, which was preſented to his Majeſty on the 9th, by a deputation from both Houſes. Soon after, a bill was brought in to the ſame effect with the Reſolutions, which, having paſſed through the neceſſary forms in both Houſes, received the royal aſſent on the 2d of July. And a ſimilar bill having paſſed in the Parliament of Ireland, this important meaſure was finally ſettled, which it is hoped, will be productive of much advantage to both countries, and will add much to the ſecurity of the Empire at large.

In the intervals of this buſineſs ſome other debates took place that were not without their importance. On the 10th of February Mr Sheridan introduced a motion for an enquiry concerning the expedition to Holland. Much was ſaid by him and his brethren of the minority againſt miniſters, for their ignorance of the diſpoſitions of

of the Dutch people, for encouraging the mutiny in the Dutch fleet, for hampering the motion of the army by want of neceſſaries, and otherwiſe, and for their dilatorineſs in ſending the reinforcements. In a word, the whole plan was condemned, as having coſt the nation ſix or ſeven millions of money, and the lives of 10,000 Britiſh ſubjects, while it iſſued in nothing but diſgrace.

It was anſwered, that the object of the expedition was threefold: The firſt was to reſcue Holland from the gripe of France; the ſecond was to add to the force of this country, and diminiſh that of our enemies, by gaining poſſeſſion of the Dutch fleet; and the third was to make a diverſion in favours of our allies. The two laſt had been completely attained, and that the other was not, was owing to circumſtances which were not ſubject to human controul. General Abercrombie ſet ſail on the 13th of Auguſt, and had it been poſſible for him to have landed immediately, he had a proſpect of complete ſucceſs. But a ſtorm aroſe on the 14th, which raged with ſuch violence, and continued ſo long, that he could not land till the 27th. During this time the enemy became acquainted with his deſign, and poured in troops to oppoſe him. It was ſaid, that the whole expence of the expedition was only L. 1,142,000 and when the value of the ſhips taken was conſidered, and the reduction for the maintenance of a fleet in the north ſeas, it was no loſing bargain. With regard to the loſs of lives, it was proved from the official returns, that all that were ſlain in the different engagements belonging to the Britiſh army, amounted to no more than 846; and thoſe who died in the hoſpitals, whether of wounds or ſickneſs, were only 1095; and as to diſgrace, it was denied that any was incurred: Our army, it was ſaid, left

left Holland with as much honour as they entered it. It could be no diſgrace to give up 8000 French priſoners, whom we muſt otherwiſe have maintained at a great expence; and the Duke of York, in the negociation, did not recede from one article in which the national dignity was concerned. When the houſe divided, there were for the motion 45, againſt it 216.

There were alſo debates about ſubſidies to foreign princes, about the continued ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act, and about the ſupplies. But a detail of theſe debates could afford no information to the reader, as there were no arguments to be uſed on either ſide, that had not been often inſiſted on before. The parliament was prorogued on the 29th of July.

A remarkable interpoſition of providence for the preſervation of his Majeſty's life took place on the 15th of May this year: Whether the danger to which he was expoſed was the effect of mere frenzy, or whether the frantic perſon was employed as the inſtrument of ſome dark conſpiracy will perhaps never be known in this world. But his preſervation was a bleſſing to the nation, and calls for the gratitude of all ranks to the ſupreme Diſpoſer of events. The Grenadier Brigade of Guards, were going through the evolutions of a field day, in preſence of his Majeſty: and in their firing, a ball was diſcharged from near the centre, which ſtruck a man ſtanding about five or ſix yards from the king. With a humanity worthy of himſelf, his Majeſty ordered the military ſurgeon preſent to examine and dreſs the gentleman's wound, and ſent his commands to the ſurgeon-general, and inſpector of hoſpitals, to offer him their aſſiſtance, during the progreſs of his cure.

The ſame evening at the theatre in Drury Lane, immediately upon his Majeſty's entering the box, a piſtol

was

was fired from the pit, and the ball paſſed but a few inches above his majeſty's head. It was done ſo ſuddenly, that none of thoſe who ſat near the aſſaſſin had time to prevent it; but a gentleman who ſat next him, inſtantaneouſly raiſed up the man's arm as he was firing the piſtol, which was probably the mean of preſerving the king's life, by directing the ball towards the roof of the box. The perſon who fired it was inſtantly dragged over the rails of the orcheſtra to a place of ſecurity, and was found to be one James Hadfield, who had been for ſome time ſubject to fits of inſanity, as appeared upon his trial.

In France the new conſtitution, though it had not yet received any ſhadow of ſanction from the people, was put in operation. The members of the ſenate were choſen as formerly noticed. The ſenate choſe the members of the tribunate, and of the legiſlative council. All theſe entered upon their functions on the firſt day of the year: and one of their firſt acts was the paſſing of a law, declaring in what manner all future laws ſhould be paſſed. When a bill was framed by the executive power, it was to be ſent to the legiſlative body by a counſellor of ſtate; the motives for it were to be explained, and a day appointed for its diſcuſſion. The legiſlature was to ſend a copy of it to the tribunate, who after debating it were to ſend three of their members, on the day appointed, to declare their reaſons for aſſenting to, or rejecting it. If they thought they had too little time for diſcuſſion, the legiſlature were to determine if further delay ſhould be granted; if it was, the executive was to name another day; but if not, a preſent deciſion muſt take place. If the Conſuls ſaw any cauſe for amendment, the project was to be diſcuſſed between the orators of the conſulate, and thoſe of the

the tribunate in the preſence of the legiſlative council, who without taking any part in the debate, were then to decide in ſilence by ballot, whether the law ſhould be accepted or rejected.

Upon receiving Lord Grenville's note already mentioned, Bonaparte knowing that nothing tended more to encreaſe his popularity, and ſo to eſtabliſh his power, than an appearance of a diſpoſition for peace, ſent a ſecond note to his Lordſhip, written by the miniſter of foreign affairs, in which he charges Britain with being the aggreſſor in the war, inſiſts that the Britiſh cabinet had twice ſolicited for peace, when the French government had neither the ſolidity nor the force that it now had; and after urging various motives for putting an end to the war, propoſed that Dunkirk, or any other town might be the place of meeting for plenipotentiaries.

In anſwer to this note, the Britiſh miniſter repelled the charge of aggreſſion, and retorted it upon the French. He intimated, that the circumſtances mentioned in his former note rendered all attempts to negociate for the preſent hopeleſs; that the ſolidity and conſiſtence of the French government, as well as the pacific diſpoſition of thoſe in power, were yet to be proved; and that the only proof admiſſible in the caſe muſt be the reſult of experience, and the evidence of facts. The publication of this correſpondence in a great meaſure anſwered the end propoſed by the firſt Conſul: It perſuaded the French people, that all the blame of the continuance of the war lay upon the Britiſh court, and made them unite for a vigorous proſecution of it.

But ſtill there were people in France who had not ſubmitted to the new government. When Bonaparte took the helm into his hand, he found the weſtern departments

partments in a ſtate of inſurrection. He immediately addreſſed a proclamation to the inſurgents, in which he acknowledges, that unjuſt laws had been promulgated and executed; but acquaints them, that to repair this injuſtice, a government founded on liberty and equality had been proclaimed and acknowledged by the nation. He offered a plenary remiſſion of all paſt offences to ſuch as ſhould return to their homes, and to their occupations; but denounced terrible vengeance againſt ſuch as ſhould prove diſobedient, and regardleſs of the invitation. This was followed by a conſular decree, appointing, that all bands of inſurgents ſhould diſſolve themſelves, that all arms ſhould be depoſited in ſuch places as General Hedonville ſhould appoint, and that ſuch communes as ſhould continue in rebellion, a full decade after the publication, ſhould be treated as enemies to the French Republic. Another proclamation addreſſed to the army of the weſt, informed them, that the great maſs of the inhabitants had laid down their arms, that none remained to be ſubdued but ruffians, emigrants, and the hirelings of foreign powers. It was ſaid in the proclamation, that the army of the weſt conſiſted of 69,000 men, though every ſoldier in it knew that it did not amount to half the number, and they were exhorted to make a ſhort and good campaign.

At laſt the ſuſpenſion of arms was lengthened to the 20th of January. And two days before the time expired, Bonaparte's offer was accepted by all the chiefs on the left of the Loire. General Brune was now appointed to command the army of the Weſt. He ſo diſpoſed his forces, as to ſurround the great body of the inſurgents under Georges, near Vannes; and they were defeated with great ſlaughter. Georges, finding it in vain to attempt further reſiſtance, ſubmitted on the conditions

ditions propoſed by Brune. Frotte alſo, who had been the moſt active leader of the inſurgents, and had taken the title of commander in chief for Louis XVIII. ſeeing himſelf abandoned by all his friends, attempted to make his peace, but his offers were rejected. He was cloſely purſued by detachments of the Republican army, and at laſt betrayed by ſome of his own adherents; he was taken priſoner with his whole ſtaff, in a chateau in the department of Orne. Being conveyed to Vernueil, he and his companions were tried by a military commiſſion, and ſhot.

At the ſame time, when the firſt Conſul made overtures of peace to the Britiſh court, he made ſimilar propoſals to that of Vienna, but in a manner more formal and preciſe, and urged with more earneſtneſs. The Archduke Charles was ſaid to have been diſpoſed for peace, and by that means to have loſt the favour of the emperor. Be this as it may, he was about this time made governor of Bohemia, and ſo removed from the command of the army on the Rhine, which was given to General Kray.

Bonaparte communicated the rejection of his propoſals by the coaleſced powers to the legiſlative body, on the 7th of March, in a meſſage in which, according to cuſtom, he inveighs bitterly againſt England, and its 'horrible policy.' This was followed by two decrees, one calling upon all veterans who were ſtill capable of ſervice, and all young men of the requiſition and conſcription, to join their colours before the 5th of April; and the other ſtating the formation of an army of reſerve, of 60,000 men at Dijon, under the command of the chief Conſul in perſon.

In the mean time, the French government were employed in making ſuch changes in every part of their

political economy as were adapted to their new ſyſtem. Hitherto the departments had been under the direction of the *central adminiſtration*, that is, a certain number of individuals, named by the electors every year: Now they were to be governed each by a prefect, nominated by the firſt Conſul, with three or four ſub-prefects, a council of prefecture, and a council general; which laſt was to conſiſt of twenty-four, or fewer members, according to the population. They were to ſit only fifteen days in a year, and their principal buſineſs was to allot their proportion of taxes, to each of thoſe diſtricts into which the department was ſubdivided. Each diſtrict had its ſub-prefect nominated alſo by the firſt Conſul; and each had a council, which was alſo to ſit fifteen days, and determine the quota of taxes to be paid by each individual. But the whole adminiſtration belongs excluſively to the prefects, who have alſo the nomination of inferior magiſtrates. In towns, cities, and villages, where there were municipal adminiſtrations, a mayor and two adjoints were named for each municipality.

It was now thought proper, for form's ſake, to ſubmit the new conſtitution to the people, for their approbation. Every citizen was allowed to ſubſcribe his name for or againſt it, as he pleaſed. Though it was manifeſtly ſubverſive of the principles of liberty and equality, upon which it profeſſed to be founded, yet very few in compariſon ſignified their diſapprobation of it. Nor is it difficult to account for this: ſome were blinded by their attachment to a man whoſe military career had been ſo ſucceſsful. Some might perhaps be convinced by the experience of eight years, that though the right of ſovereignty is originally in the people, the exerciſe of it ought to be truſted in other hands. But it is manifeſt, that moſt of thoſe who were againſt the conſtitution

conſtitution were ſilent through fear. And it is not improbable, that many of thoſe who voted for it, acted from the ſame principle. The conſtitution had been in actual operation for ſome months. Bonaparte was in full poſſeſſion of all the power of the ſtate. No man could ſuppoſe that he would diveſt himſelf of that power, though a majority of the people had declared againſt its continuance. Every one therefore ſaw, that by voting againſt the conſtitution, he expoſed himſelf to Conſular vengeance, without any hope of ſetting it aſide. And no wonder that few had courage to riſk the conſequences. Many articles in the conſtitution were ſubmitted to with great reluctance, even by thoſe who gave their vote for it, in hopes that in calmer times alterations might be made, more favourable to the ſpirit of Republican liberty.

Among the preparations making in France for carrying on the war, the public attention was chiefly turned towards the army of reſerve, aſſembling at Dijon. From its central poſition, this city was deſigned as a general rendezvous for both the armies of Germany and of Italy. The ſtandard of the firſt Conſul was reſorted to, not only by the conſcripts, but alſo by numbers of volunteers. The command of this army was given to General Berthier, who, ſince the laſt revolution, had acted as Miniſter of war; Bonaparte not thinking it perfectly ſafe to leave the capital in preſent circumſtances, in order to take that command himſelf, according to his decree.

The laſt campaign had cloſed with the taking of Coni, and the retreat of the French army into the territory of Genoa, which was now the only place of importance in Italy that continued in their poſſeſſion. This army, which had been reduced to leſs than half its number by

the ſword, had now fallen almoſt into complete diſſolution, through diſeaſe and famine. The magazines and military cheſts were all empty. The ſoldiers had received no pay for ſeven months, and they ſaw no means of preſerving life, but to fly from thoſe abodes of deſolation. Such were the effects of that ſyſtem of dilapidation which had been introduced by Scherer in the war department. Whole battalions deſerted their poſts without orders; even generals left the army without waiting for permiſſion. The loſs which the French ſuſtained in the territory of Genoa, during the winter, by diſeaſe and famine, without fight of an enemy, was ſaid to amount nearly to 30,000 men.

The command of this army being given to Maſſena, he found himſelf under a neceſſity of making uncommon exertions to have it recruited and re-organized. That he might be enabled to do this, he was inveſted by the Conſul with extraordinary powers in every department, military, political, adminiſtrative, and financial. At Lyons he began to raiſe recruits; at Marſeilles he ſent off all the grain he could find, and procured a promiſe of more. Before he arrived at Nice he had collected a little army, whoſe firſt operation was to bring back to their colours ſeveral battalions, and one whole diviſion, whom the famine had driven back into France, to ſeek their pay, their food and clothing. To effect this, he found it neceſſary to make uſe, not only of perſuaſions, but likewiſe of rewards and puniſhments.

The miſery of the French ſoldiers was much aggravated by the diſaffection of the Genoeſe. Thoſe of the higher claſſes ſaw in the French only the deſtroyers of their commerce, their rank, and their political influence; and they ſecretly lent their aid to every meaſure that might

might drive them out of the country. A great part of the eaſtern territory of Genoa was for ſome months in a ſtate of complete inſurrection, occaſioned by the diſorders which were every where committed by the famiſhed ſoldiery, and this inſurrection had begun to ſpread into the weſtern territory. Maſſena upon his arrival ſet himſelf to re-organize his army. He began by diſmiſſing all the general officers, leſt their preſence ſhould remind the ſoldiery of paſt defeats. He formed all his troops into new diviſions, gave them ſome part of their pay, ſome clothing, particularly ſhoes, of which there was ſcarcely one pair to be found in the army, and what other neceſſaries he could afford. This rendered them more obedient, and more ſubject to diſcipline.

His next care was to quell the inſurrections in the Ligurian territory. Inſtead of 60,000 men which had been promiſed him, he found himſelf at the head of only 24,000, to guard the whole line from mount Cenis to the frontier of Tuſcany, to garriſon Genoa, and to repreſs the inſurgents. Leaving the town to the care of the national guard, which he re-organized for the purpoſe, finding his repeated proclamations diſregarded by the inſurgents, he ſent the firſt diviſion of his army towards them, which after repeated and obſtinate conflicts ſtopped the progreſs of the revolt, if they did not bring back the revolters to obedience. Mean time, only part of the proviſions purchaſed at Marſeilles had arrived. The army was again reduced to ſhort allowance, and the inhabitants of the town received only two ounces of bread a-day for each perſon. The communication by ſea had long been interrupted by contrary winds, and now was obſtructed by the Britiſh fleet.

fleet. And the winter months paſſed without any conſiderable amelioration of the ſtate of the army.

All this while the Auſtrian army lay diſſeminated through Piedmont, Lombardy, the ſtate of Venice, and part of the Roman territory, confining itſelf to a ſimple ſtate of obſervation, conſcious of their own ſecurity, as being perfectly informed of the diſtreſſed ſituation of the enemy. They had received reinforcements, and made preparations for opening the campaign, with ſo little noiſe, that the French were aſtoniſhed when they ſaw General Melas within a few days aſſemble 10,000 men before Bobbio, an equal number before Tortona, and 30,000 at Acqui and Aleſſandria, though he left behind him, in Piedmont, all his cavalry, and a conſiderable body of infantry, with a numerous artillery.

The appearance of the Britiſh fleet before Genoa, on the 5th of April, was the ſignal for the commencement of hoſtilities. That day paſſed in ſkirmiſhes on the out poſts. But on the day following, a large body of Auſtrians, which had been ſtationed at Acqui, marched upon Savona, where the French had only 3000 men, who made a vigorous but ineffectual reſiſtance; and were only reſcued from deſtruction by General Soult coming up to their aſſiſtance. The Auſtrians continued the attack, and having purſued the French to Savona, entered the ſuburbs with them. The French general having taken poſſeſſion of the citadel, and proviſioned it during the night, evacuated the town, and retreated to the heights of Albi. By having poſſeſſion of Savona the Auſtrians cut off the communication of the Republican army with France.

Another diviſion of the imperial army had taken poſſeſſion of Montefaccio, in ſight of Genoa, where they lighted

lighted fires as ſignals to their friends in the town, and raiſed the country around by the ſound of the tocſin. But they were driven from this poſition the following day by the enemy, who purſued them, and took 1400 priſoners, among whom was Baron D'Aſpres, their general.

General Melas, following up his advantage on the weſt of Genoa, marched to attack the diviſion under Soult, leaving a ſufficient number of troops to keep in check the French corps under Suchet, which was ſtationed on the ſide of Nice. Maſſena himſelf went to meet the Auſtrian General, and an engagement both obſtinate and bloody took place near Saſſels, on the 10th of April, which terminated in the defeat of the French. Maſſena himſelf narrowly eſcaped being made priſoner, after loſing one general out of two, two adjutant generals out of three, and three aides-de-camp out of five. Soult, taking advantage of the diverſion made in his favour, attacked another body of Auſtrians whom he drove back. The mountain Hermetta being in poſſeſſion of the Imperialiſts, ſeparated the two diviſions of the French army. This poſt was attacked and carried, and a junction of the two diviſions took place. But a body of French, ſituated on the coaſt, were driven from their poſt at Cozoletto; Maſſena re-took the poſt, and puniſhed the fugitives, by ſhutting them up in Genoa. In theſe various combats, both armies ſuffered conſiderable loſs.

Maſſena having continued his offenſive operations for fifteen days, and finding his army reduced to 9500 men, determined to retreat into the city, which he effected, but not without conſiderable loſs, on the 21ſt of April. There he continued blockaded by the Auſtrians by land, and by the Britiſh fleet under Lord Keith by ſea,

ſea, till the 4th of June. He neglected no opportunity of haraſſing, by frequent ſallies, the army which ſurrounded him. In ſome of thoſe he was ſucceſsful, but in others he ſuffered much. At length an engagement on the 14th of May, in which Maſſena loſt three of his beſt commanders, one of which was general Soult, terminated all further operations of this kind on his part. At this period the Neapolitan gun-boats began to bombard the town, which they continued to do only for that day, but renewed it again ſome days after.

During this blocade the moſt terrible famine prevailed within the city. From the 21ſt of May the inhabitants were literally without bread, and 15,000 of them periſhed with hunger. The ſoldiers had only ſix ounces a day, of a mixture half bran and half maize. All the horſes were eaten, and the people were driven to deſperation; ſo that the French found it as difficult to keep them within the gates, as to keep the Auſtrians out. As to the priſoners whom the French took in their ſallies, it is impoſſible to think of their fate without horror; they were put aboard veſſels in the port, and the Ligurian government was commiſſioned to give them proviſions, though it was well known that they had none to give. Their ſhoes and knapſacks converted into food ſerved for a moment to prolong their miſeries; ſuch was their deſperation, that the government durſt not ſend any perſon on board, leſt the meſſenger ſhould be made a victim to their raging appetites. Human nature could not long ſubſiſt in ſuch a ſtate of wretchedneſs. Many ſought deliverance from it by plunging themſelves into the ſea. The reſt expired in the moſt dreadful agonies.

General Melas, expecting the famine to do his work for him, did not lay formal ſiege to the city; and having

ving nothing to fear from the French army, who were ſhut up in it, turned his forces againſt General Suchet, whom the firſt attack had ſeparated from the main body of the French army, he obliged him to abandon his ſtrong poſition of the Col de Tende, and drove him from various other poſts which he ſtrove in vain to defend. He retreated to Nice, but finding it not tenable, he ordered it to be evacuated, and retired acroſs the Var. Melas now entered the French territory, and continued for a ſhort time in poſſeſſion of the whole department of the maritime Alps.

At laſt Maſſena found himſelf under a neceſſity of opening a treaty (for he would not allow it to be called a capitulation) for delivering up Genoa. It was concluded on the 4th of June. The terms were, that 8110 men of the army of Genoa ſhould be allowed to march into France by the road of Nice, the reſt to be conveyed to Antibes by ſea; that the inhabitants of Genoa ſhould have liberty to remove themſelves and their effects to what place they thought proper; and that all the French officers who had been made priſoners during the campaign ſhould be permitted to return to France upon their parole.

While theſe things were tranſacting in Liguria, the campaign was likewiſe opened on the Rhine. General Kray, who now commanded the Auſtrians in that quarter, had divided his army into four corps, commanded by Generals Kollowrath, Klinglin, Stzarray, and Klenau. The Aulic council at Vienna had given orders to form two armies of reſerve, one of which was to recruit the army of Italy, and the other to be cantoned in Bohemia. The Bavarian troops ſubſidied by Britain, were at Donawerth, under the command of the Baron of Deux-ponts. On the 25th of April hoſtilities were

begun by the left wing of the French army, paſſing the Rhine at Kehl and new Briſac, under Generals St Suſanne and St Cyr. Various ſkirmiſhes took place in the Briſgaw without much advantage to either party, but they anſwered the end propoſed by the French general, by drawing off the attention of the Auſtrian general from the main point of attack.

While theſe two generals made as if they intended to form a junction, and penetrate through the Black Foreſt to the ſources of the Danube; Moreau, who was commander in chief for the French in that quarter, having reinforced his right under Lecourbe, by ſeveral ſtrong detachments, gave orders for the paſſage of the Rhine, between Stein and Schaffhauſen, and fell upon the rear of the Imperial army. This manœuvre was ſo little expected by the Auſtrians, that they had made no preparation for it. Lecourbe, therefore, paſſed the river without much loſs, and after an engagement under fort Hohentweil, in which he took 800 priſoners, he got poſſeſſion, by capitulation, of that fortreſs which was deemed impregnable.

From thence Lecourbe directed his march upon the rear of the Auſtrians at Stockach. There he fell in with a party whom he routed, and purſued beyond the town. Moreau, in the mean time, having collected his centre and left diviſions, marched upon the village of Engen, where general Kray had aſſembled his main army. He attacked the Auſtrians, carried all their poſts, after a moſt deſperate engagement, and obliged them to retreat during the night upon Moſkirch. This affair took place on the 3d of May. The Imperialiſts were ſaid to have loſt 10,000 men, of whom 4000 were made priſoners; and the loſs of baggage and magazines was likewiſe immenſe.

The

The great object of Moreau was now to follow up his victory, and give his opponent no time to rally his forces. The retreat of the Auſtrians was ſo rapid, that he could not reach them the following day. But though General Kray had been ſurpriſed and diſconcerted, though he had loſt a great number of men, and a large tract of country, he had yet an army too powerful to ſuffer the enemy to march into the heart of Germany, without a ſtrenuous reſiſtance. He therefore took a ſtrong poſition at Moſkirch, where he waited for Moreau's coming up. The French general perceiving this, made preparation for the attack. Lecourbe with the right wing advanced upon Moſkirch, while the centre under Moreau, and the left wing, commanded by St Cyr, occupied the country between Stockach and the Danube. The engagement began on the 5th of May, on the plain. The Auſtrians, reſenting their former defeat, fought with uncommon fury. Three times were the French repulſed, and victory ſeemed ready to declare for the Imperialiſts, when Richepanſe coming up with a freſh diviſion, they were compelled to retreat a ſecond time with great loſs; but the loſs of the enemy was not leſs than theirs.

It was now expected that General Kray would retire to Ulm; but he took a ſtrong poſition behind the Riſs, which he reached by forced marches. There he was again attacked on the 9th, and forced a third time to retreat, with the loſs of 3000 priſoners, beſides a conſiderable number ſlain on the field. Next morning General Kray croſſed the Iller, and meant to take a poſition near Memmingen; but underſtanding that the enemy meditated a freſh attack, he continued his march towards Ulm. On the 11th the French attacked him on his march, but were repulſed, and driven back be-

yond Memmingen, where the Auſtrian general left a conſiderable body to keep open a communication with Prince Reuſs, who commanded in the Voralberg. He then retired with the main army to Ulm, where he formed a junction with a diviſion of the Bavarian army, and with General Stzarray.

Marſhal Kray now began to fortify his poſition at Ulm, reſolving to wait there for ſuccours from Vienna. Moreau perceiving his intention, determined to attempt the paſſage of the Danube. He accordingly gave orders to Lecourbe to advance with the right wing of the French army, and take poſſeſſion of the bridges between Donawerth and Dillingen. The approach of Lecourbe towards the river was a ſeries of engagements, as the avenues to it were carefully guarded by the Auſtrians. But the French ſucceeded in gaining poſſeſſion of the bridges. General Kray informed of this, ſent a diviſion under General Stzarray down the left bank of the river, to oppoſe the enemy's paſſage. An engagement took place at Hochſtet, in which Stzarray was defeated, with the loſs (ſay the French accounts) of 4000 priſoners, and 14 pieces of cannon. And the French army paſſed the Danube on the 21ſt of June.

Marſhal Kray now ſaw the danger of his poſition at Ulm. He therefore aſſembled his whole army, and leaving a ſtrong garriſon in that city, he marched down the river, in hopes of reaching the ſources of his ſupply at Ratiſbon and Donawerth. On the 27th he made an attack upon the French army at Newburg. The engagement laſted till night, without a deciſive victory on either ſide. But next morning, Kray, after deſtroying the Bridge at Newburg, retreated along the banks of the Danube, to Ingoldſtadt. This retreat left the French maſters of all Bavaria. Ulm was inveſted,

and

and Moreau fixed his head quarters at Munich, the Elector and the court having previouſly fled the place.

About the ſame time when the campaign was opened upon the Rhine, the army of reſerve which had been forming at Dijon began its march. Bonaparte having gained his own ends by continuing ſo long in Paris, after having announced his deſign of taking the command of that army, left the city on the 5th of May, and went to Dijon. From thence he paſſed to Geneva, and after continuing a ſhort time in the Pays de Vaud, he joined the army of reſerve, which by this time was aſſembled at the foot of Mount St Bernard; and, inſtead of leading them as was expected to the relief of Genoa, began to march them towards Milan. The firſt difficulty he encountered was that of conveying his artillery acroſs the mountain, which was covered with ſnow. The road was extremely ſteep, and in many places not more than three feet wide. The peaſantry of the neighbouring cantons were therefore employed in hollowing out trees, in which they laid the cannon, and with incredible labour dragged them to the ſummit.

A ſmall force might have ſtopped this army in their aſcent, but as none imagined that they would take ſuch a route, they met with no oppoſition, till in their deſcent into Piedmont, they reached the town of Aoſt, of which they took poſſeſſion, after a ſlight ſkirmiſh with the few troops that were ſtationed there. Another ſkirmiſh took place at Chattillon. But the fort of Bard preſented a more ſerious obſtacle: It was ſo conſtructed as to ſhut up the entrance into Piedmont, at a place where the two mountains which form the valley of Aoſt approach ſo near each other as to leave a ſpace not wider than fifty yards. No thought was entertained of taking time to lay ſiege to the fortreſs, and to attempt

tempt the paſſage under its guns was too hazardous. The ſoldiers therefore with immenſe labour cut a road acroſs the mountain Albardi, and the French cavalry effected its paſſage over a mountain which for ages had been conſidered as inacceſſible even to infantry. As it was found impracticable to convey the artillery by that new road, the cannoneers wrapped the wheels of the carriages with ſtraw to prevent noiſe, and dragged them through the town in a dark night under the walls of the fort, amidſt a ſhower of balls ſhot at random, from which they ſuffered much, but leſs than might have been expected.

The French army purſued their route down the vallay of Aoſt with little oppoſition, till they came to the town of Yorea, where the Auſtrians had aſſembled ſome forces, which were ſoon obliged to abandon the place. Reinforced from different quarters, theſe Auſtrians took poſt on the heights of Romano, behind the Chiuſella, the paſſage of which they guarded with 5000 infantry, 4000 horſe, and ſeveral pieces of cannon. On the 26th of May the French began the attack on three points. The centre forced the bridge, and the other two diviſions threw themſelves into the river, under a ſhower of balls and grape ſhot. The firſt line of the Auſtrians was thrown into diſorder, but the ſecond made a long reſiſtance, though at length it was compelled to give way. The cavalry, after ſeveral deſperate charges were repulſed by the bayonets of the French infantry, and the Auſtrian general was killed. The French loſt many men, but they had the advantage.

While the van-guard under general Laſnes was advancing towards the Po, a diviſion under general Turreau marched by Suza, and there attacked the Auſtrians with equal ſucceſs. The fort Brunette, that commanded

manded the entrance of Piedmont on that side, capitulated as soon as the posts which commanded its approaches were carried, and Turreau marched through Suza, on the road to Turin. The main body continuing its march, entered Chivasso, and reaching the Po, took possession of some boats laden with rice and other grain; and the magazines at Vercelli, which the Austrians had not time either to transport or destroy, supplied them plentifully; for in this expedition, the French were in too much haste to carry provisions along with them: They lived, as they often did, upon their shift.

The main body of the Austrian army were in the remotest part of Piedmont, celebrating their victory at Nice, when General Melas was roused from his security by the news of this invasion, which he could scarcely believe. He flew back to Turin, recalling his army to defend the paſſages of the Po, and the approaches to Turin and Asti, reasonably expecting that the French would bend their forces thither, both to intercept the army returning from Nice, and to relieve Genoa. But Bonaparte, while he seemed to threaten to pass the Po, drew off suddenly to the left, passed the Sessia, took possession of Navarre, and presented himself on the banks of the Tessino, on the road to Milan. The passage of that river was an enterprize of some difficulty. The Austrians had now taken the alarm, had destroyed, or removed all the boats they could find, and lined the banks of the river with cavalry and artillery. But the inhabitants of the village of Galiata had concealed four or five skiffs, of which the French got possession. They threw themselves into a small island, which they obliged the imperialists to evacuate. There fifteen hundred men established themselves, with

with two pieces of cannon; and while General Mounier amused the Austrians by an attack on the village of Turbigo, the army made good their passage. Without any further opposition, they continued their march, and entered Milan on the 2d of June, within less than a month after the first Consul left Paris.

In the mean time, General Lasnes with the advanced guard filed off towards Pavia, of which he took possession. Pavia was the grand depot of the Austrian army. There the French found upwards of 200 pieces of artillery, 8000 muskets, 2000 barrels of powder, a million of cartridges, and a vast quantity of stores of every kind. This was of great importance to the French army, who had neither magazines, artillery, nor stores of any kind.

After a day of joy and festivity, in which Bonaparte, who being in the heart of Italy was converted from Islamism, and become a rigid Catholic, caused *Te Deum* to be sung for what he called the deliverance of Italy from Heretics and Infidels; he proceeded to form a provisionary government for the Cisalpine Republic. Mean while his army was not idle; General Duhesme passing through Milan drove the Austrians across the Adda; and General Murat, after a warm contest, gained possession of Piacenza, where he made 2000 prisoners. He then passed the Po at Stradella, and so cut off the communication between the Austrians in Piedmont, and those on the south of that river. The magazines at Piacenza and Cremona, and other places along the river, all fell into the hands of the French.

The Austrian troops having been called off from the Maritime Alps to meet the army of reserve, left Suchet master of the country as far as Savona. General Ott had left Genoa, with thirty battalions, to oppose the progress

progress of the French army, which was marching towards Piedmont. He had poſſeſſion of Caſteggio, where he was attacked by the French. The ſhock was terrible, and for a long time the victory remained doubtful. The town was taken and retaken ſeveral times. At laſt the Auſtrians gave way, and were purſued as far as Voghera. This was called the battle of Montebello, and in it the Auſtrians loſt 3000 killed and wounded, and 6000 priſoners. It was fought on the 10th of June.

But this victory, gained by the French, was only the prelude of one more deciſive, which they won on the 15th, and by which the fate of Italy was determined. General Melas, finding it impoſſible to ſtop the progreſs of ſuch an enemy by partial detachments, and ſeeing himſelf in a manner blockaded in Piedmont, aſſembled all his forces between Aleſſandria and Tortona, hoping by one ſtroke to cruſh the invading army, or at leaſt to open himſelf a paſſage, that he might join the Auſtrian diviſions on the Mincio. Bonaparte marched to meet him. He fell in with the van guard of the Imperialiſts at St Juliano, which they abandoned, and took poſt at Marengo. By their leaving the plain between theſe two places, the French General conjectured that they meant to avoid an engagement by croſſing the Po, or the Teſſino. But while he was taking methods to prevent this, he found his advanced guard attacked, and diſcovered the intention of the Auſtrians to give him battle. He formed his army into two lines. The centre occupied the village of Marengo, the left wing, commanded by General Victor, extended to the Bormida, and the right conſiſted of General Laſnes' diviſion. Both wings were ſupported by a heavy body of cavalry.

The Auſtrians, who had drawn out all their forces, began the attack early in the morning. For two hours the French ſuſtained the fire of the Auſtrian right and centre, without giving ground. The centre of the French were at length compelled to fall back, and part of them fled in great diſorder. The Auſtrians advanced, and after a dreadful carnage, got poſſeſſion of the village of Marengo. The right wing continued to reſiſt, but was ſo hard preſſed that it could give no aſſiſtance to the other parts of the army. General Victor then gave orders for a retreat on the corps de reſerve. The right wing being thus inſulated, was attacked in front by two lines of infantry with a formidable artillery. General Melas had alſo detached part of his centre to attack them in flank. At length they alſo gave way; but they retreated in good order, under the fire of eighty pieces of artillery. Here again the carnage was dreadful, but the French ſtill kept their ranks entire, replacing thoſe that fell with new troops.

The reſerve of the French army under General Deſaix was drawn up in two lines, on the plain of St Juliano, ſupported on the right and left by the artillery under Marmont, and the cavalry under Kellerman. At the critical moment when the right wing began to retreat, Deſaix ſent Monnier's diviſion, who, together with the Conſular Guards, were the inſtruments of changing the fate of the day. The Auſtrians, ſecure of the victory, as having routed two thirds of the French army, and almoſt ſurrounded the other third, had no thought of meeting with a freſh diviſion. Fatigued as they were with an action that had laſted more than ſeven hours, they improvidently diſperſed themſelves in the eagerneſs of purſuit. Bonaparte inſtantly perceived his advantage. He had rallied his centre and left

left behind the reſerve. He ſent off his guards with Monnier's diviſion firſt, and then Deſaix with the whole reſerve, who, with fixed bayonets, advanced againſt the purſuers in their ſcattered ſtate. The whole army ſeized with the enthuſiaſm of revenge, followed at the pas de charge. Aſtoniſhed at this unexpected movement, the Auſtrians began to give way. At this moment Deſaix fell. His death increaſed the fury of his followers. The bayonet, however, which had driven back the firſt line of the Auſtrians, could not pierce the ſecond, and the event was ſtill doubtful, till Kellerman decided it. By a vigorous charge of cavalry he threw the Auſtrians into confuſion, and took a whole diviſion priſoners, amounting to 6000, among whom were ſeveral Generals, and almoſt all the officers of the Staff.

A third line of Auſtrian infantry ſtill remained, which had been kept as a corps de reſerve, ſupported by ſome artillery and all the cavalry. Againſt theſe the right wing of the French army advanced, with the grenadiers of the Conſular Guard, and part of the reſerve, ſupported by Marmont's artillery. The Imperial infantry ſtill held its ground; but the French cavalry under Murat attacking the Auſtrian horſe, they ſuddenly gave way, and then the route became complete. Thus ended the fatal battle of Marengo, in which the French boaſt of having killed, wounded, and taken priſoners 15,000 Auſtrians. They indeed obtained a complete victory, but the loſs on their ſide was at leaſt equal to that of their opponents. They had more than 12,000 killed and wounded, beſides 3000 taken priſoners in the beginning of the action.

The next day, General Melas, finding his ſituation no longer tenable, propoſed an armiſtice, which was

accepted by Bonaparte. The principal conditions were, that the Auſtrians were to have free paſſage into the territories of Mantua, Tuſcany, and Ancona; and that all Piedmont and Genoa, with its territory, ſhould be given up to the French. The citadels of Tortona, Aleſſandria, Milan, Turin, Pizzighitone, Piacenza, Coni, Ceva, and Savona, with the city of Genoa, and Fort Urbino, were all to be delivered up to the French by the 25th of the month. This armiſtice was to continue till an anſwer could be had from Vienna; and whatever that anſwer ſhould be, neither party could renew hoſtilities without giving ten days notice.

This armiſtice being concluded for Italy only, gave no interruption to the progress of Moreau in Germany. Having fixed his head quarters at Munich, as has been said, he imposed upon that city a contribution of ten millions of livres, and afterwards one of fifteen millions upon the duchy of Wirtemberg. He sent his advanced guard along the Iser, in pursuit of Marshal Kray, who crossed the Inn on the 2d of July, and took up his head quarters at Braunau. On the same day the French troops reached the left bank of that river. Another division reached Nieustadt the same day, amounting to 13,000, which obliged General Klenau, who had only 7000 under him, to retreat under the walls of Ratisbon, while General Stzarray took post at Wurtzburg, with a view to defend Bohemia against St Susanne, who was advancing into Franconia, followed by Angereau with a body of 15,000 men from Holland. Ingoldstadt was now invested, and Ulm was closely pressed. The division under Lecourbe ascended the Lech, took possession of Feldkirch, Coire, and the whole of the Grison country, and thus formed a junction with the army of Italy

ly, a diviſion of which had poſſeſſed itſelf of the Valteline. At length an armiſtice was concluded alſo for Germany, leaving for the line of demarcation the poſts occupied by the reſpective armies at the time.

About this time the Count of St Julian was ſent from Vienna to Paris with propoſals for peace. And on the 28th of July preliminaries were agreed upon between him and the French Government. The Emperor, conſidering the terms as diſhonourable, refuſed to confirm the treaty; but as he was deſirous of peace, he ſent Count Cobentzel as Plenipotentiary to Luneville, to open a negociation for that purpoſe. That he might not be unprepared in caſe of the renewal of hoſtilities, he appointed the Archduke Charles Generaliſſimo of his armies, with very full power. That prince accordingly appeared at the head of the army, and hoſtilities recommenced in the latter end of November.

On the 24th of that month, a detachment of Angereau's army ſummoned the Mentz troops to evacuate Aſchaffenburg, which they not only refuſed, but immediately attacked the Batavians, and drove them back with the loſs of 250 men. The place, however, capitulated next day, and the French took poſſeſſion of it. This was ſucceeded by ſeveral ſharp ſkirmiſhes on the 26th and 27th; and on the 28th a diviſion of the French army entered Wurtzburg. Angereau's deſign manifeſtly was, by preſſing on the frontiers of Bohemia, to draw the attention of the Archduke, while Moreau advanced from Bavaria into Auſtria, and Lecourbe, by taking poſſeſſion of the Tyrol, might cut off the communication between the imperial forces in Germany and thoſe in Italy.

On the 1ſt of December the Archduke made an attack on the French, whom he found advantageouſly poſted

poſted on the heights between Ampfing and Haag, and gained ſome advantages over them, taking 800 priſoners and two pieces of cannon. But he met with a ſad reverſe on the 3d. He marched his army in three columns during the night, with a view to attack the enemy at day-break that morning. But owing to a heavy fall of ſnow and ſleet, which continued all night and a great part of the morning, the centre column only reached the deſtination at eight o'clock; the other two were ſtill far behind; beſides, the left column loſt its way, and inſtead of turning towards Hohenlinden, marched towards Eberſberg. This afforded an opportunity for a French diviſion to penetrate between it and the centre column, and take the latter in flank. This threw the whole army into a diſorder from which it could never recover itſelf. The French obtained a complete victory, and, by their own accounts, took 10,000 priſoners, with 80 pieces of cannon, while the loſs on their ſide was only 1000 men.

In order to improve this victory, General Moreau, keeping his face towards Vienna, puſhed on with rapidity to Saltzburgh, which he entered on the morning of the 15th, having met with little oppoſition from the Auſtrians on his march, though he had two deep rivers to paſs; ſo much were they diſpirited by a courſe of bad ſucceſs. On the ſame day General Richepanſe, with the left diviſion of the French army, entered Newmark, the laſt poſt in Bavaria, on the frontier of the Emperor's hereditary ſtates. General Macdonald, who commanded the French army in the Griſons, had paſſed the Rhetian Alps by the defiles of Splugen, in the beginning of December. On the 11th he reached the valley of the Adda, and thus eſtabliſhed a communication

tion with General Brune, who commanded the left wing of the Italian army.

Angereau, with the Gallo-batavian army, had inveſted the citadel of Wurtzburg, when he received intelligence from General Moreau, that a body of twelve or thirteen thouſand Auſtrians were aſſembled before Bamberg. He attacked, and forced them from their poſition; but they retreated in good order; and General Duheſme took poſſeſſion of Bamberg on the 3d of December. From that time nothing took place but ſkirmiſhing of out poſts till the 18th, when a bloody battle was fought between Nuremberg and Lauff. General Klenau commanded an attack on the left of the Gallo-batavian army under General Barbou; and General Simbſchen attacked their right wing, which was commanded by Duheſme. Both ſides fought with uncommon fury, from nine o'clock in the morning till the cloſe of the day. The aſſailants were forced to fall back, but the loſs on both ſides was nearly equal. An hundred waggons were loaded with dead and wounded Auſtrians.

The ſame day another engagement took place between the army of the Archduke, which had taken a ſtrong poſition behind the Traun, and Moreau's army, which advanced upon them in five diviſions. It would ſeem that only the van-guard of the French were engaged with the rear of the Imperialiſts; but the latter were defeated with the loſs of about 400 killed and wounded, and 1000 taken priſoners. On the 19th the Auſtrians interrupted their retreat, endeavouring to make a ſtand on the heights of Lambach. But their rear guard was again defeated with great loſs, in conſequence of which the whole army retreated to Lintz, within 92 miles of Vienna.

The

The French army continued to advance in three columns, the Auſtrians retreating before them till they came to the banks of the Traſen, within fifty miles of Vienna. That great city was ſtruck with terror and conſternation; for which there was the more reaſon, as there was a party within it, neither few in number, nor yet altogether of the lower claſſes, whoſe countenance brightened up with joy at the approach of the French. Such had been the progreſs of French principles, and the ſucceſs of French intrigues. The Imperial family were preparing to ſet out for Offen, eſcorted by a party of the life-guards. The gallery of paintings, the imperial treaſury, and other articles of value, were placed in waggons, ready to be removed from the capital; when the Archduke arrived, on the 27th of December, with information, that he had concluded an armiſtice of thirty days with Moreau.

This armiſtice left the French army in poſſeſſion of a portion of territory, in form of a triangle, whoſe baſe was at Chiavenna and Wurtzburg, and its point at the Danube, near Leoben, within 52 Engliſh miles of Vienna. It included the Gallo-batavian army, as well as that of the Rhine. At any rate it was to continue for thirty days; nor were hoſtilities to commence after that, till notice had been given fifteen days before.

It will now be proper to return to Italy, and ſee how matters went in that country, in conſequence of the Armiſtice concluded there after the battle of Marengo. By that treaty the Auſtrians were to occupy Tuſcany and Ferrara. They therefore thought themſelves warranted to keep poſſeſſion of a tract of country ſubject to Ferrara, as well as of the town and citadel. But this the French diſputed. About the ſame time a general arming of the people took place in

in Tuſcany, which the French called a *Levy en masse*. This alſo was a matter of diſpute; and hoſtilities were about to commence, when news arrived of the preliminaries ſigned by Count St Julian, and of Count Cobentzel's arrival at Luneville. In conſequence of this, a new convention was agreed upon at Caſtiglione, on the 20th of September, in which General Brune conſented to wait for an anſwer from Vienna, relative to the evacuating of the Ferrareſe. In that treaty no mention was made of diſarming the *levy en masse*, but the French general alleged, that he conſidered it as a matter of courſe, and no more than a natural return for his condeſcenſion, reſpecting the territory of Ferrara. In truth, the French only ſought a pretence for an irruption into Tuſcany, being apprehenſive of the landing of the Britiſh in that quarter. As for the *levy en masse*, it was in no great forwardneſs; and if it had, an undiſciplined rabble of enervated Italians could never have been formidable to the troops of France.

A general officer, with a ſmall eſcort, as a ſecurity againſt robbers, was ſent by General Dupont, in name of the commander in chief, to General Sommariva, who commanded the troops in Tuſcany, demanding that he ſhould diſarm the Levy en maſſe, and alſo clear the country of robbers; and intimating, that if this was not done by a certain day, he would enter Tuſcany to puniſh the outrages which he ſaid were committed upon the territory occupied by the French. His demand not being readily complied with, he accordingly entered Tuſcany with a great army, and took poſſeſſion of Florence on the 15th of October. On the 16th General Clement entered Leghorn. The inſurgents were ſoon diſperſed and ſent home. Sommariva, and the few troops that were with him, amount-

ing only to 2500, were permitted to retire to Ancona. The Britiſh merchandiſe found in Tuſcany, particularly at Leghorn, though, by the armiſtice of Marengo, it had been permitted to retain its neutrality, was ſeized, in direct violation of public faith, and of the law of nations, and confiſcated to the uſe of the republic. But the Britiſh merchants had taken advantage of the ſhipping in the road, ſo that the French treaſury was not much enriched by their plunder. The collection of pictures belonging to the Archduke, and ſome valuable remains of antiquity, had alſo been put aboard ſhips, and ſent away to Frieſta, under convoy of a Britiſh ſhip of war; from thence they were to be ſent to Vienna.

General Brune, who now had the chief command in Italy, Bonaparte having returned to Paris, encouraged by the ſucceſs of Moreau's army, determined to attack the Auſtrians after the expiration of the time. On the 24th of December, the right wing of the French, under General Dupont, who had been recalled from Tuſcany, had orders to march up the courſe of the Mincio, leaving a corps of men at Goito, to make a feint of paſſing the river there. Early on the 25th a bridge was thrown over the Mincio, the paſſage was effected, and a poſition taken on the left bank, which was maintained againſt all the attacks of the Auſtrians, whoſe main force was drawn gradually to that quarter. In the courſe of that day, the French, being ſupported by freſh troops, diſpatched to their aid by their commander in chief, took 2000 priſoners. The next morning, the paſſage of the river was carried by the main body, at Morzanbano, between Mantua and the Lake of Garda.

The

The Auſtrians were drawn up on the left bank to receive them. The advanced guard paſſed the river about nine o'clock on a bridge that had been conſtructed in the morning. Without firing a gun they made a general charge both horſe and foot, though expoſed to a heavy fire of muſquetry and grape ſhot. The Auſtrians ſoon gave way, and fled with precipitation. They were purſued to the heights of Vallegio. In the mean time, two brigades advanced to the left, with four pieces of light artillery, againſt ſome Auſtrian forces, which were covered with redoubts. Theſe forces, after a brave reſiſtance, were driven from their fortifications by the French, at the point of the bayonet. Two other brigades, who had taken a poſition near the heights of Vallegio, were ſoon attacked by 12,000 Hungarian Grenadiers. But the French, reinforced by additional numbers, defeated the aſſailants, taking from them four pieces of cannon, one cheſt of ammunition, and 2000 priſoners. This carried part of the advanced guard of the French towards Vallegio, where they ſtill met with a warm reſiſtance. Three times was the village taken and retaken. The Auſtrian commander at length beat a retreat. In this place, according to the French accounts, they took 2000 priſoners, twenty-nine of whom were officers, five pieces of cannon, two Howitzers, 900 muſquets, and 80 horſes. In conſequence of theſe movements, the reſt of the army, having conſtructed a ſecond bridge, paſſed the river, and took poſt on the left ſide. The Auſtrians, who remained maſters of the caſtle of Vellagio, abandoned it in the night.

The next day, which was the 27th, General Delmas, having ſurrounded ſome redoubts at Salionza, began to prepare for an aſſault, but the Auſtrians, ſeeing reſiſ-

tance vain, ſurrendered at diſcretion. Fourteen pieces of cannon, 1000 priſoners, and two pair of colours, fell into the hands of the victors. The number of ſlain or wounded, on either ſide, in theſe various engagements, is not told. It was conjectured by ſome writers, that the Auſtrians muſt have loſt from ſix to ſeven thouſand. The French, purſuing their advantages, occupied the heights of Caſtel Nuovo on their left; on the right they took poſt between Legnago and Verona. And they ſent out detachments to inveſt Peſciera, and to blockade Mantua.

The Auſtrians had left ſome troops, with a numerous artillery in an entrenched camp, before the town of Verona, on the great road from thence to Mantua; but their main army had croſſed the Adige, and the French determined to follow them. They accordingly paſſed that river at Bouſſolingo, on the morning of the 1ſt of January 1801; and that ſame day began to march towards Verona. In the night between the 1ſt and 2d the Auſtrians evacuated that city; but left 1500 men in the two forts. The French left only two diviſions on the right of the Adige, one of which, under General Boudet, took poſſeſſion of Chiuſa and Alla, making 800 priſoners in theſe two places, and then marched to Roveredo, of which they became maſters on the 3d. The other diviſion commanded by Rochambeau, joined them in that place, after having taken poſſeſſion of Riva and Torboli.

The Auſtrians retreated from Verona by the way of Vicenza, and took a poſition between Sto Bonifaccio and Montebello. The main body of the French army followed them, keeping the ſummits of the mountains. Some of their poſitions the imperialiſts defended with firmneſs; but finding themſelves in danger of being turned,

turned, they retired behind Montebello. After this they made but little reſiſtance to their purſuers, who, croſſing the Brenta, took poſſeſſion of Trent, Baſſano, and Caſtelfranco; driving them from every place, till they came to Salvaroza; the road to which place was ſtrawed with dead and wounded men. In the ſpace of eight days both armies had marched 150 miles, the one in purſuit of the other; and beſides all who were ſlain in the purſuit, or dead of fatigue, the French during that time had taken 3000 priſoners.

While the French Army lay at Salvaroza, and that of the Auſtrians was encamped in the neighbouring plain in expectation of an attack, an Auſtrian Colonel arrived at the French head quarters, on the 12th of January, and propoſed conditions of an armiſtice, which was concluded at Treviſo on the 16th. By this treaty, the line of demarcation between the two armies was to be the Tagliamento, from its ſource to the Adriatic. Peſchiera, Porto Legnago, Ferrara, and Ancona, were to be given up to the French, and the blockade of Mantua was to be continued. This put an end to all hoſtilities in theſe parts; as before the truce expired, peace was made between the Emperor and France at Luneville on the 9th of February. But this truce occaſioned a ſharp diſpute between two French Generals. As Moreau in his armiſtice had included the army under General Angereau, ſo Brune, in his treaty, included the army of the Griſons. But Macdonald wrote him an angry letter, denying his right to ſtipulate for that army, as it was not under his command. This diſpute alſo was terminated by the treaty of Luneville, by which all the demands of the French were granted.

After the French troops had been recalled from Tuſcany, the ſtrong averſion of the Italians to them

was

was manifeſted by an inſurrection of the people, both in Tuſcany and in Piedmont. The Tuſcans had Neapolitan troops ſent to their aſſiſtance. The Piedmonteſe without any aſſiſtance, performed many actions which ſhewed great courage and reſolution, for the recovery of their independence. But theſe inſurrections were ſoon quelled by the overbearing force of the French arms. An army of obſervation, amounting to 25,000, croſſed the Alps in the beginning of January, proceeded to Ancona, drove the Neapolitans from Rome, and all the eccleſiaſtical ſtates, as well as from thoſe of Tuſcany; and was ready to march through theſe ſtates to Naples, had not the concluſion of the treaty of Luneville obliged the King of Naples alſo to make peace with Bonaparte on his own terms. The treaty was accordingly ſigned at Florence on the 28th of March.

By the treaty of Luneville, which put an end to the war on the Continent, the Belgic provinces, and all the left bank of the Rhine was ceded to France, the Venetian territories were confirmed to the Emperor. The Grand Duke of Tuſcany was diveſted of his dominions in Italy, which were given to the infant Duke of Parma, afterwards called the King of Etruria. For theſe Italian ſtates, the Grand Duke was to obtain a full indemnity in Germany. And thoſe princes who were diveſted of their dominions on the left bank of the Rhine, were in like manner to be indemnified in what was left of the German empire. The Batavian, Helvetic, Ciſalpine, and Ligurian Republics were included in the treaty. In a word, every thing was ſettled according to the ſovereign pleaſure of Napoleone Bonaparte; for the Emperor, degraded and diſpirited, by a ſeries of bad ſucceſs, and afraid of loſing all that he poſſeſſed, if the war had continued, durſt refuſe no thing

thing that the other demanded of him. No wonder then that the King of Naples ſhould likewiſe be obliged to comply with all the demands of Bonaparte particularly by ſhutting his ports againſt all Turkiſh and Britiſh veſſels, whether ſhips of war or merchantmen, and by keeping them open, not only to all the enemies of Britain, but alſo to the Northern States, who at this time had an appearance of becoming her enemies, in conſequence of the plan of armed neutrality which was concerted among them.

CHAP.

CHAP. XX.

Transactions in Egypt—Treaty for its Evacuation made void by a letter from Lord Keith—Hostilities recommence—Battle of Heliopolis—Insurrection in Cairo—Spreads to other places—Treaty with Mourad Bay—Boulac retaken, and Cairo—Colonel Murray at Suez—Kleber assassinated—British Ministry confirm the Treaty of El-Arisch—Dissentions in the French army—British Expedition—Sails from Torbay, arrives at Minorca—And at Malta—Surrender of that Island—Fleet anchor in Marmorice Bay—Sail from thence, and anchor in the Bay of Aboukir—Landing of the British troops—Battle of the 13th of March—Aboukir taken—Battle of the 21st—General Sir Ralph Abercromby mortally wounded—his death and character—Rosetta evacuated—And fort St Julian taken—General Hutchinson takes the command—fortifies his camp—Marches against Rhamanieh—French abandon El-Aft, and Rhamanieh—French convoys taken—French defeated by the Grand Vizier at Belbeis—Capitulation of Cairo—Arrival of General Baird from India—Atchievement of Colonel Spencer—Castle of Marabout taken—Alexandria capitulates—Treachery of the Turkish Commanders to the Beys, resented by General Hutchinson—Remains of General Abercromby interred at Malta.

WHEN Bonaparte left Egypt he felt that the country was no longer tenable; since the deſtruction of his fleet, and the weakneſs of the French marine, did not permit him to hope for ſuccours, in ſuch time as might avail, for the relief of the army of Egypt.

Egypt. He is ſaid, therefore, to have left inſtructions with General Kleber, to continue thoſe negotiations with the Ottoman Porte which himſelf had begun. Kleber continued them accordingly, chiefly in the hope that it might be a mean of inducing the Grand Vizier to relax in his preparations, and delay the moment of attack, till ſome favourable occurrence might enable him either to maintain his poſition, or to make an honourable retreat.

The attack was delayed by a circumſtance which he could not foreſee. A violent diſſention had ariſen between the Grand Vizier and the Pacha of St John d'Acre. Djezzar, who would have fallen an eaſy prey to the French army, if it had not been prevented by the wiſdom and valour of Sir Sidney Smith, was now ſo much elated with his ſucceſs, that he would needs turn his arms againſt his friends; and the Grand Vizier, who was ſent to expel the French from Egypt, was compelled, for a time, to employ his forces againſt this ungrateful and rebellious ſubject of the Porte.

Yet he was neither ſo much amuſed with Kleber's propoſals, nor ſo much engaged in hoſtilities with Djezzar, as to neglect the main enterprize. While he ſeemed to liſten to terms of accommodation, he was active in providing the means of tranſporting his army, which was ſaid to amount to ſixty thouſand men. He was joined by other Pachas, who brought him forces from the interior of Aſia. And towards the end of autumn 1799. the vanguard of his numerous army took its poſition at Jaffa. About the ſame time, a correſpondence commenced between Sir Sidney Smith and General Kleber. In anſwer to a letter which the French General had written to him, Sir Sidney acquainted him with the nature of the alliance ſubſiſting between

the Court of Britain and the Ottoman Porte: And informed him, that though the Porte might conſent to their having a free paſſage for the evacuation of Egypt, yet it could not be put in execution without the conſent of Britain; and that, if he conſented to ſuch a thing, it was only from a deſire to preſerve the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and a hope, that the evacuation of Egypt might lead to a general peace.

After ſome other letters had paſſed between them, Kleber propoſed, that the Grand Vizier ſhould ſend two perſons of note, to open the conference, leaving the place to his choice; ſignifying that he would willingly conſent that theſe conferences ſhould be on board Sir Sidney Smith's ſhip, if he deſired it. Accordingly the Commiſſaries met on board the Tigre; the French gave in their propoſals, and Sir Sidney gave in a counter project. An armiſtice was agreed upon in the mean time; and a veſſel was diſpatched to give notice of it to the Grand Vizier. But a tempeſt ariſing, ſhe could not approach the coaſt. And the Vizier, ignorant of that tranſaction, ſent detachments from his army which was encamped at Gaza, to beſiege El-Ariſch, of which he gained poſſeſſion after ſeven days, in the beginning of January 1800.

At length, after many conferences, and much correſpondence on the ſubject, a treaty was agreed to, for the evacuation of Egypt, and ſubſcribed, in the Turkiſh camp, before El-Ariſch, on the 24th of January. The principal conditions were, that the French army ſhould withdraw, with arms, baggage, and effects, to Alexandria, Roſetta and Aboukir, in order to be embarked, and tranſported into France, as well in its own veſſels as in thoſe which ſhould be furniſhed by the ſublime Porte; that there ſhould be an Armiſtice for

three

three months in Egypt; that Commiſſaries ſhould be named by General Kleber and the Sublime Porte, to regulate the tranſportation of the French Army; and that, if any difference ſhould ariſe, it ſhould be decided, after the maritime regulations of England, by a Commiſſary named by Sir Sidney Smith;—that the places evacuated by the French ſhould be given up to the Porte in the ſtate in which they then were;—that the Porte ſhould take every method in their power to prevent the French from being moleſted in their retreat. It was alſo ſtipulated, that no inhabitant ſhould be vexed on account of his connection with the French;—that paſſports ſhould be granted to the French, ſigned not only by the Porte, but alſo by its allies, Ruſſia and Britain; that the means of ſubſiſtance ſhould be ſupplied all the time of embarkation; and that ſuch of the French as had the plague ſhould be left in the hoſpitals, and treated with humanity.

Notwithſtanding the ſkill diſplayed by Sir Sidney Smith, in conducting this negotiation, one radical defect is obſervable in the treaty. There was nothing in it by which the French could be compelled to fulfil their engagements. Of this, it is probable that Kleber was aware; and that he purpoſely kept himſelf in a condition either to confirm or to break the convention, as he might find it convenient. Even before he knew any thing of thoſe inſtructions from the Britiſh Government, which annulled the treaty of El-Ariſch, he ſought an occaſion of quarrelling with the Turks, on pretence that the ſupplies ſtipulated for his army had not arrived; declaring, that he would aſſert his right by force of arms. This was as early as the 25th of February. In order to gain time to collect his forces, he now propoſed a conference for an amicable arrange-

ment, till ſome explication ſhould take place between France and Britain. Having obtained this, he gave in ſuch demands as he knew muſt lead to the renewal of the war. And when his ultimatum was rejected, he began to prepare himſelf accordingly.

On the 16th of March, Kleber received a letter from Lord Keith, who commanded the Britiſh ſquadron in the Mediterranean. It was dated on board the Queen Charlotte, on the 8th of January 1800, ſixteen days before the treaty of El-Ariſch was concluded; in which his Lordſhip told him, that he had expreſs orders from his Majeſty, not to conſent to any treaty with the French army for the evacuation of Egypt, unleſs upon condition of their laying down their arms, ſurrendering themſelves priſoners of war, and delivering up to the allies all the ſhips and ſtores in the Port of Alexandria. As ſoon as Kleber received this letter, he convened a Council of War, and laid it before them. The reſult of their deliberations was intimated to the army, in the following laconic addreſs; 'Soldiers, to ſuch inſults we 'ſhall reply by victories: prepare for battle.' The truth was, Kleber had now heard of the 'ſucceſsful 'deſtinies' of Bonaparte, and was anxious to wipe off the unfavourable impreſſions that his firſt diſpatches muſt have made on the mind of the Firſt Conſul, by exerting himſelf to preſerve the French intereſts in Egypt.

After a tedious march, the Grand Vizier encamped with his main army near Latich, about ſeven miles diſtant from El-Ariſch, on the 5th of February 1800. The Army amounted to about 40,000 effective men. While they continued at El-Ariſch ſuch a ſcarcity prevailed that a revolt might have enſued, had not a convoy

convoy landed ſome proviſions. In the mean time, the French troops that had marched for Alexandria, in order to embark according to the treaty, were remanded; and Cairo was put in a ſtate of defence.

On the 20th of March, hoſtilities recommenced. The advanced poſts of the Turkiſh army, commanded by Nuzuff Pacha, were then at Mataria, the ancient Heliopolis, five miles from Cairo. At break of day, Kleber opened upon them a heavy fire from 60 pieces of cannon. The French army, amounting to 15,000 men, were drawn up in two ſtrong lines, extending from El-Kubbi towards Boulac, and flanked on the right by a wood of date-trees. Here they received the attack of the Turks, who had advanced into the plain between the villages of Mataria and El-Hanka. The Janiſſaries were the only infantry that engaged, hovering about the French lines, in parties of twenty or thirty, and ſo ſcattered that they could make no impreſſion. They were totally unſupported by cannon, and were ſhort of ammunition. About noon the French began to advance in line, with a terrible fire of artillery and muſquetry; and immediately the whole Turkiſh army were ſeen flying in all directions. All attempts to rally them were abortive. At one o'clock the Vizier himſelf was obliged to fly, as the enemy were marching in two oblique lines to cut off his retreat. The whole loſs of the French, in this affair, conſiſted of ten men killed, and forty wounded. Of the Turks, 8000 were ſaid to be killed or wounded. A briſk fire was kept up, on the rear of the Turkiſh army, during the whole night, by the flying artillery of the French, who took poſſeſſion the next day of Belbeis; from whence the Turks retreated precipitately

ly to Jaffa, having loſt half their army, by the ſword, by deſertion, by hunger and fatigue.

The French were prevented from purſuing their victory, by a ſingular circumſtance. A detachment of Janiſſaries and Mamelukes, under Nuzuff Pacha, taking advantage of the abſence of the French from Cairo entered the city, gave out that the French had been cut in pieces, and that they were come to take poſſeſſion of the capital, in the name of the Sultan Selim. The inhabitants received them with the utmoſt joy. They marched ſtraight to that quarter of the town which was occupied by the French and other Europeans. A general maſſacre enſued, without diſtinction of age or ſex, Muſtapha-Aga, ſuperintendant of the police under the French, was impaled alive. Many of the Cophts, Greeks, and Chriſtians of Syria were cruelly put to death. The whole city was in arms. An attack was made upon the French head-quarters, two hundred and fifty French defended themſelves there for two days, till they were reinforced by General Lagrange's column, which returned from El-Hanka for their ſupport, and entered the palace, through crowds of Turks, whom they diſperſed by a ſmart diſcharge of muſquetry, and of ſome pieces of cannon. That poſt was ſoon rendered impregnable. The French were ſtill in poſſeſſion of the citadel, and of the fort called by them *Dupuy*, from whence they continued an inceſſant bombardment upon the town, from the beginning of the inſurrection; while the inſurgents ſhewed an activity much beyond what could have been expected.

On the 26th, in the morning, General Kleber returned with the main body of his army to Cairo. Being ſhort of ammunition as well as of troops, he determined

ed to wait for the arrival of two diviſions which were not yet come up. And in the mean time, threw up new entrenchments without the city, and endeavoured by means of his emiſſaries to ſow diſſentions among the inſurgents and troops within. And as the inhabitants of Cairo, the Mamelukes and the Turkiſh ſoldiers had each their ſeparate intereſts, they were ſoon diſunited by the proſpect of danger, and by the intrigues of Kleber. The conſequence was, that Nuzuff Pacha and the other Commanders entered into a capitulation, which Kleber granted them on eaſy terms. But this treaty was never fulfilled; for the inhabitants, afraid of the vengeance of the French when their power ſhould be reſtored, crowded about the Mamelukes and Janiſſaries, imploring them not to forſake them. When the time came for the execution of the convention the Janiſſaries refuſed to open the gates; and hoſtilities were renewed at all the poſts.

About the time of the battle of Mataria, a treaty of Friendſhip was concluded between Kleber and Mourad Bey. The provinces of Ginge and Apuan, in upper Egypt, were allotted to Mourad, which he was to hold as a kind of tributary, with the title of 'Prince Gover-'nor for the French Republic.' This treaty Kleber now made public, hoping to induce others to follow Mourad's example; while Mourad uſed all his influence to bring about a peace between the French and the Grand Signior.

The inſurrection in Cairo was followed by riſings in Damietta and ſundry other places. But French troops traverſing the Delta in every other direction, and a ſeries of victories in petty engagements which took place between the 29th of March and the 4th of April, reſtored tranquillity in lower Egypt.

On

On the night of the 2d of April, General Friant attacked the quarter of the Cophts, and obtained poſſeſſion of ſome poſts, which facilitated the communication between the two extremities of the French line. In repeated attempts to regain thoſe poſts, the Muſſelmans loſt a great number of men, and four ſtandards. —In the night of the 10th, General Regnier gained an important poſition, near the Fort Fuſkovſi. All the houſes in the neighbourhood were burnt. Three times did the Turks attempt to recover it, but could not ſucceed. On the ſame night, another party entered the quarters of the Turkiſh engineers, by a breach made by the cannon, and drove the Muſſulmans before them, with much impetuoſity. Theſe attacks, together with the fire kept up by the forts and citadel, had exhauſted the French ammunition, which being known to their enemies they gave vent to their joy in various ways. But a convoy having arrived from Roſetta on the 12th, Kleber determined on a general attack on Cairo, after reducing the village of Boulac.

Accordingly that village was ſummoned for the third time on the 13th. A full and free pardon was promiſed in caſe of ſubmiſſion; and a moſt terrible vengeance was denounced in caſe of reſiſtance. The inhabitants replied, that they would follow the fate of Cairo, where the chiefs were; and if attacked, would defend themſelves while they had life. On the 14th, the ſiege of Boulac was formed by General Friant, who tried at firſt the effect of a bombardment. But finding an obſtinate reſiſtance, he ordered the cannon to play, and the aſſault to be made. The ſoldiers leaped on the entrenchments, moſt of which were taken, though the beſieged defended themſelves with great bravery. When driven from their works, they found

a new citadel in every houſe. But every houſe that could not be forced was committed to the flames. In this ſituation of things, amidſt the cries of horror and deſpair, a new offer was made of pardon, to the leaders of the inſurgents; and, even in this ſituation of things, it was again rejected. The ſtorm began afreſh, and the flames gained upon the town; till the vanquiſhed were forced to implore the clemency of the victors. Hoſtilities then ceaſed, and a general pardon was proclaimed.

Kleber determined to make a ſimilar attack on Cairo the next day. But it was delayed till the 17th on account of violent rain, which is a thing not common in that country. For ſome days the French had been employed in working a mine, under a part of the town where the Turks had ſtrongly fortified themſelves. The blowing up of this mine was to be the ſignal for the general aſſault.—The exploſion was made with the greateſt ſucceſs, and the Janiſſaries and Mamelukes who defended the poſt were buried in its ruins. At that inſtant the aſſault was begun. The Turks were driven from one poſt to another. About 800 of them were killed, 400 houſes were burned; and the courage of the Muſſulmans ſunk before the continued ſucceſs of the French; although they alſo loſt about 500 men. At length, after ſeveral days ſpent partly in fighting, and partly in negotiation, a capitulation was ſigned, and the Turks evacuated Cairo on the 24th of April. They marched out with the honours of war; were eſcorted by a French diviſion as far as Salahieh, and purſued their route through the deſert to Gaza.

About this time Kleber was informed by Mourad Bey, his new ally, that Colonel Murray had landed with four or five hundred Britiſh, and made himſelf maſter of

Suez; and had been joined by ſix or eight hundred men from Mecca and Lambo. But the Colonel having been informed of the ſucceſs of the French at Cairo, and underſtanding that a ſuperior force had advanced within a few leagues, had reimbarked the greateſt part of his troops, leaving the defence of the place to the Turks who had joined him. Accordingly Suez was ſoon retaken by the French, without much reſiſtance. Kleber then employed himſelf in putting Cairo in ſuch a ſtate of defence as might prevent the recurrence of another dilemma like that from which they had juſt extricated themſelves; and in raiſing heavy contributions, to revenge himſelf for the inſurrection in that city.

The Egyptians, ſeeing the defeat of the Grand Vizier's forces at a time when they were confident of his ſucceſs, concluded that the ſtruggle was at an end, and haſtened to make their ſubmiſſion to their conquerors. They bore with patience the exactions that were laid upon them, and continued tranquil and poſitive. Kleber availed himſelf of this opportunity to carry into effect ſome judicious and prudent regulations. He raiſed a Greek legion of 1500 men; gave orders for the purchaſe of horſes and camels; threw flying bridges over the branches of the Nile; eſtabliſhed poſts of communication between the different ſtations of his army; improved the condition of the ſoldiery, and ſuppreſſed the peculation of Commiſſaries.

Towards the latter end of May, the Capitan Pacha appeared off Alexandria, with a Turkiſh fleet, propoſing to open a negotiation with the French. This officer, being in the confidence of the Sultan, and no friend to the Grand Vizier, hoped, by concluding a peace, to render himſelf more important than his rival, diſgraced

disgraced as he was by his late defeat. But Kleber, elated with his success, prohibited the landing of any agent from the Turks, and refused these advances to an accommodation. He wanted to open a direct communication with Constantinople, hoping by that means, to keep up a regular intercourse with his own Government. But, by the activity of Lord Elgin, his plan was disconcerted.

In the mean time, differences had arisen between Kleber and Menou. This latter did not make his appearance at Cairo, till after the expulsion of the Turks, though repeatedly requested to repair thither, for six months before. When he arrived he raised so many objections against taking the command of the place, and indeed to every other employment, that Kleber told him, 'he had offered him the most desirable commands, and had only that of Commander in Chief to add.' From that time dissentions were fomented in the army, and various reports were circulated, tending to deprive Kleber of their confidence. On the 13th of June, Kleber was walking on the Terrace in his garden at Cairo, in company with his architect; as they were engaged in conversation, an assassin fell upon him, and gave him several stabs with a poignard, under which he immediately expired. The Generals assembled, the assassin was apprehended and interrogated, but the result of his examination was not made public. His right hand was first cut off, and then he was impaled alive. The remains of Kleber were interred with military honours; and Menou took the command. But much dissatisfaction prevailed, both among the officers and soldiers.

On the 20th, Menou wrote a letter to Sir Sidney Smith, in which he charges the grand Vizier as the au-

thor of the aſſaſſination, inſinuating, that Sir Sidney himſelf was not ignorant of it. The grand Vizier having ſeen the letter, publiſhed an addreſs to the officers and ſoldiers of the French army in Egypt, in which he ſays, The death of Kleber could be of no importance to the Ottomans, as another was ready to ſucceed him; but that he had many enemies among the French, and that it was among themſelves that they ought to ſearch for the true authors of the aſſaſſination. Indeed moſt people gave, at leaſt, as much credit to the grand Vizier in this matter as to Menou.

The Britiſh miniſtry could have no knowledge of the treaty of El-Ariſch when they iſſued the orders to Lord Keith which he mentioned in his letter; for theſe orders were ſent to his Lordſhip a month before the treaty was ſigned. But as they really gave ſuch orders, it cannot be ſuppoſed that they authoriſed Sir Sidney Smith to agree to ſuch a treaty. Yet as ſoon as they knew that the treaty was ſigned, and that Sir Sidney had conſented to it, though in ſo doing he exceeded his powers, they immediately ſent off their confirmation of it. On the 9th of June, Lieutenant Wright of the Tigre arrived at Cairo, through the deſert, with a flag of truce, informing the French General of this, and propoſing a renewal of the negotiations; but to this Menou refuſed to liſten.

Diſſention ſtill raged in the French army: and the new impoſts excited univerſal diſguſt in the country. A military force was neceſſary to collect them, and when collected they fell far ſhort of the expenditure, which had encreaſed, ſince the death of Kleber, from 1,300,000 to 1,700,000 franks per month. A remonſtrance was preſented to Menou by his brother Generals; to which he replied, by offering ſome of them paſſports

paſſports for France. The philoſophers and artiſts who attended the army he embodied with the other followers of the camp, ſo that they were liable to be called out to perform military duty. His whole conduct was thought to aim at the erection of Egypt into a colony, of which himſelf might be the ſole and independent ruler. However, he was confirmed in the command by diſpatches from France, received on the 5th of November. Immediately after this, the other Generals waited on him to repreſent their grievances, but without effect. Upon this they drew up a note, deſcriptive of his conduct, and delivered it to an officer who was about to depart for France, to be by him preſented to government. This officer was the famous Tallien. But his departure was delayed till the beginning of January 1801, and he was taken by the Engliſh on his paſſage.

The Vizier, mean while, was at Jaffa, with about ten or twelve thouſand troops; but in no condition to march, though he gave out that it was his intention to commence offenſive operations. He was in open hoſtility with Djezzar, who commanded a more powerful army, Paleſtine was afflicted with a famine, and he was obliged to bring proviſions for his army from Europe. In this perplexity he applied for aid to the Britiſh. About the middle of December he received from Conſtantinople the plan of the enſuing campaign, with orders to act in concert with the Britiſh forces.

That Armament was now approaching which was finally to drive the French out of Egypt. Early in the ſpring a ſecret expedition had been fitted out in England. After being detained for ſome time on the coaſt, by contrary winds, they ſailed from Torbay on the 24th of April 1800. The land forces were under the

the command of Major-General Pigot, and Captain Page of the Inflexible was appointed Commodore. They landed in Minorca on the 19th of May. Here they were joined by two regiments from Gibraltar, and continued on that iſland till the 22d of June, when Sir Ralph Abercromby arrived, and took the chief command. General Pigot was appointed to command the troops at Malta, and immediately proceeded thither with the 1ſt battalion of the 35th regiment. On the 23d the troops were reimbarked, and ſailed for the coaſt of Italy. It is probable, that the firſt deſtination of the expedition was to co-operate with our allies in that country; but this was rendered impracticable by the ſudden change that took place in the ſtate of affairs there. They returned to Minorca on the 24th of July, and continued there till the 31ſt of Auguſt.

The Army that then ſet ſail from that iſland amounted to 10,409 men, excluſive of the artillery, engineers, and hoſpital ſtaff. Lord Keith had the command of the fleet, which conſiſted of upwards of 200 ſail. They arrived in the bay of Gibraltar on the 14th of September. An attack upon the city of Cadiz was projected. The fleet came to an anchor four leagues from that place, and diſpoſitions were made for landing the troops; but the attack was not made, on account of an epidemic diſtemper which then raged in thoſe parts. At length, on the 19th of November, the fleet anchored in the harbour of Valletta in the iſland of Malta.

Since the time when this iſland was blocked up by Captain Ball, as was noticed in a former chapter, the French had been obliged to confine themſelves to the town and forts. At the commencement of the blockade, Lieutenant Vivion of the royal artillery was landed

ed on the iſland, with his party; and, for a long time did duty with theſe few men without any other regular force. Captain Ball himſelf was much on ſhore, and directed the operations by land as well as by ſea, till General Pigot arrived. About the beginning of May, the Guilliaume Tell, a ſhip of 80 guns, which eſcaped from Aboukir on the memorable 1ſt of Auguſt, attempted to make a ſecond eſcape from the iſland of Malta, but was taken, after a ſtout reſiſtance, by the Lion and Foudroyant. In the beginning of September the French being much ſtraitened for proviſions, attempted to ſend out two frigates in the night. One of them was taken in going out of the harbour, and the other was purſued by ſome of his Majeſty's ſhips. This determined the French to capitulate, which they did on the 5th of the month, after a blockade of two years. The troops became priſoners of war, but were to be ſent to Marſeilles, not to ſerve againſt his Britannic Majeſty till exchanged. Thus General Abercromby found Malta in poſſeſſion of Great Britain. He accordingly landed his men, that they might be refreſhed, previous to their ſailing for Egypt; and took up his reſidence in the ſame palace which had been occupied by Bonaparte when on his way to Egypt.

He employed himſelf in inſpecting the troops, and preparing them, by proper diſcipline, for the important ſervice in which they were to be employed; while Lord Keith was not leſs active in his preparations on board the fleet. On the 17th of December the army embarked, and ſailed out of the harbour on the afternoon of the 20th. The force under Sir Ralph, at leaving Malta, amounted to 17,489 men, beſides 500 Malteſe, who voluntarily enliſted to act as pioneers to the army.

After

After a voyage of nine days the fleet came to an anchor in the bay of Marmorice, on the coaſt of Caramania. The object of aſſembling in this place was, to concert meaſures with the Ottoman Porte, to purchaſe horſes for the cavalry, to procure ſhips to tranſport them, as well as Turkiſh gun-boats to cover the landing of the troops, and veſſels of lighter burden, to enter the lakes. During the time that the fleet continued here, the boats were exerciſed in a line, in all the manœuvres neceſſary for landing troops. The coopers were employed in making ſmall caſks for carrying water on horſe-back, and ſmall barrels to hold about 100 weight of boiled meat each, to be conveyed in the ſame manner. Buckets were alſo provided for drawing water out of ſuch wells as might be dug in the ſands of Egypt; ſledges for conveying water and proviſions over the ſands; hand-barrows, wooden-pumps, and other implements which might be neceſſary. An hoſpital was erected, and the ſick were conveyed from on board their ſhips to receive the benefit of it. A part of the army was alternately put on ſhore, and employed in cutting wood, and other preparatory exerciſes. The Malteſe pioneers were ſent round in the Dolphin to Karacratch, and there employed in cutting wood, and loading tranſports with fuel for the uſe of the army in Egypt. In ſhort, nothing was neglected that might tend to promote the ſucceſs of the expedition, or the comfort of thoſe who were engaged in it.

Though they did not leave this place till the next year, the reader, it is preſumed, will not be diſpleaſed to have the account of this important expedition continued; though at the expence of deſerting, till another occaſion, ſome tranſactions of ſmaller moment, that took place within the year.

The

The fleet had been in a ſtate of preparation for ſailing for ſome time; but the wind continued unfavourable till the 23d of February 1801. That day they got out of the bay without any accident, and ſet ſail for the coaſt of Egypt: The fleet conſiſted of 48 armed veſſels of different ſizes, and 140 tranſports, victuallers, &c. Upon their arrival in Marmorice bay, General Moore had been diſpatched in the Cameleon brig, to examine the ſtate of the Turkiſh army at Jaffa. He found it as above deſcribed; and his unfavourable report may have been the occaſion of the armament's continuing ſo long in that place, in order to encreaſe its ſtrength by horſes, gun-boats, and other auxiliary preparations.

On leaving Marmorice bay, the fleet bore a very formidable appearance, being accompanied by a number of Turks and Greeks. But a gale of wind ariſing, they were thrown into ſuch a conſternation, that their convoy quitted the fleet, and ſought ſhelter among the neighbouring iſlands. So that the Britiſh force being left to itſelf, was little more than it had been when it departed from Malta, nine weeks before. On the firſt of March the fleet arrived off Alexandria, and lay at the diſtance of nine miles from that place till ſunſet, when a ſignal was made to bear down for Aboukir Bay. There the fleet came to an anchor the next morning; and inſtantly the ſignal was thrown out to prepare to land. By ten o'clock all the boats were hoiſted out; but the wind freſhened ſo as to prevent all attempts to land for a whole week.

All this while Bonaparte had not been wholly inattentive to his favourite army of Egypt. Menou had been informed, by the ſpies whom he had ſent into Syria, of the preparations making both by the Turks and

the Britiſh; but he heſitated about giving them credit, till, on the 2d of February, two frigates arrived from France with 300 conſcripts, ſome ammunition, and a company of artillery; they brought him likewiſe a ſupply of comedians, and of common women. Theſe confirmed his information concerning the deſigns of Great Britain; imparted to him the plan of the French government for the defence of Egypt, and announced to him the ſpeedy arrival of conſiderable ſuccours; particularly of Admiral Gantheaume, who was on his paſſage with a ſquadron, having 5000 troops on board. In conſequence of this intelligence, Menou occupied Rhamanieh, that by ſecuring the Delta he might facilitate the landing of Gantheaume, which could not be effected at Alexandria, if the Britiſh fleet ſhould arrive before him.

Though the preparations of the Britiſh had been made at the earneſt ſolicitation of the Porte, the Turks were not fond of co-operating with them. Paul of Ruſſia, now a confederate of Bonaparte, was threatening to overturn the Ottoman empire. They ſeemed to be apprehenſive, that, if the Britiſh ſhould prevail to drive the French out of Egypt, they would be diſpoſed to retain it for themſelves. With regard to the grand Vizier, his jealouſy of the Britiſh ſeemed to equal his apprehenſions from the French. This induced him to employ the mediation of Mourad Bey, to open a negociation with Menou. Oſman Bey was entruſted with this buſineſs, and he obtained an audience of that General at Cairo on the 19th of February; but he was heard with great coldneſs, and very abruptly anſwered. And ſoon after the appearance of the Britiſh fleet, he was ordered to leave Cairo, and return to Mourad

Mourad Bey, being conſidered by Menou as a ſpy, rather than the ambaſſador of a mediating power.

The plague had made its appearance at Cairo in January. The finances were collected by force. The military cheſt was almoſt empty; and the magazine were unprovided with corn, of which there had been a ſcarcity in the army ſince the death of Kleber. It was therefore with joy that they ſaw two ſhips from France enter the port of Alexandria, while the Britiſh fleet lay off Aboukir, which brought them 200 men, and a confirmation of the tidings that Gantheaume was on his way with the reinforcement above ſtated.

All eyes were now anxiouſly turned towards Egypt. The French force in that country, diſtributed in different poſts, garriſons, and, we may add, hoſpitals, amounted at this time to 30,000. The number of their allies, Cophts, Greeks, Arabs, Mamelukes, and camp-followers, was computed at 15,000. They were inured to the climate, flushed with ſucceſs, and feared, if not beloved, by the inhabitants; while the Britiſh army, as noticed above, amounted only to betwixt 17 and 18 thouſand, ſtrangers to the country, and exhauſted with the fatigue of a long voyage. Beſides, during the time that they were kept in Aboukir Bay, being prevented from landing by the wind, the French had time to collect their forces, and to erect batteries upon the ſand hills, to oppoſe their diſembarkation. Nor were theſe opportunities neglected. It was no ſmall mortification to the Britiſh ſoldiers to ſee theſe things going on before their face while they could not get aſhore to prevent it.

While the army was thus impriſoned in the ſhips, the Commander in chief went in a ſchooner, and worked along ſhore to make his obſervations. And Sir

Sidney Smith, having gone with three armed launches to reconnoitre the lakes, aſſailed a battery, took a block-houſe defended by fifty men, and boarded a guard-boat at the entrance of Aboukir lake; and having aſcertained, with his uſual accuracy, ſome points of importance he returned, bringing a chief of brigade captive, together with an aſs and its driver, to the amuſement of the whole fleet.

On the evening of the 7th, the wind having become calm, the ſignal was made for all boats to be ready by two o'clock next morning. Accordingly the boats prepared, the firſt diviſion of the army got into them, and by break of day they had proceeded half way to the ſhore. Here they began to form their line of landing. At nine o'clock the ſignal was made for the boats to advance, under the direction of Captain Cochrane of the Ajax; and it was ten o'clock before they arrived at the place of diſembarkation. The front was narrow; and a hill that commanded the whole ſeemed inacceſſible. As ſoon as the boats came within reach of the French batteries, the enemy, who was completely prepared, opened a tremendous fire of grape ſhot and ſhells, but fortunately with little effect. Only three boats were ſunk, and moſt of the men were ſaved. Our gun boats, at the ſame time, played upon the French batteries, to cover the landing of the troops.

When the boats had arrived within about three hundred yards of the ſhore, a heavy fire of ſmall arms was opened upon them, which did much miſchief. They reached the ſhore, however, in excellent order, and almoſt at the ſame moment. Some of the troops formed and loaded as they quitted the boats; others puſhed forward without taking time to load. The French poured down in torrents to the beach, but were ſoon obliged

obliged to give way. The Britiſh regiments went up to the mouth of their cannon, and drove the artillery-men from their batteries with the bayonet. The 23d regiment, and four companies of the 40th, aſcended the great ſand hill, clambering often on hands and knees, took ſeven pieces of artillery, and droye the enemy down the back of the hill. This hill being carried in the centre, the ſupport of their flanks was cut off, and the Britiſh played upon their rear. There were not more than 2000 of the troops landed, when the French began to give way; though they had 4000 infantry and 600 cavalry in the engagement. The loſs of the Britiſh, in killed and wounded, was 554. That of the enemy is not aſcertained. Eight pieces of cannon, with a quantity of ammunition, fell into the hands of the victors.

The reſt of the army were landed in the courſe of the day; and for three days after they were employed in landing the ſtores and proviſions. Menou took advantage of this interval to ſtrengthen his poſition; ſo that when the Britiſh army approached him on the evening of the 12th, they found him ſtrongly poſted among ſand hills and palm trees, about three miles eaſtward of Alexandria; he had received a reinforcement of two half brigades of infantry, and one regiment of cavalry; ſo that his army now amounted to 7000, beſides a body of flying artillery. The Britiſh army was nearly double that number, but they were deficient in cavalry, and thoſe they had were wretchedly mounted on Turkiſh horſes. That day there was a good deal of ſkirmiſhing. And early on the morning of the 13th, the army moved forward to attack the enemy.

The left wing was firſt in motion, keeping the edge of the lake Maadie, with a view to turn the right of the

On the 20th General Menou returned from Cairo to Alexandria, bringing along with him the whole of his disposeable force, to the amount of 9000 men. And with these joined to the army which was in the place before, he determined to attack the British army the next day. Through the vigilance of some emissaries employed by Sir Sidney Smith, General Abercromby was apprized of Menou's design, and made preparations accordingly. Since the affair of the 13th, the British army continued in the position which it took up that evening. During the interval the boats of the fleet had been employed in getting up provisions, artillery, ammunition and stores. On the morning of the 21st, at 4 o'clock, the army was attacked by the whole force of the enemy, which was disposed in the following manner. General Lanusse was on the left, with four demibrigades of infantry, and General Roize with a considerable body of cavalry. The Generals Friant and Rampon were in the centre, with five demibrigades. General Regnier, on the right, had two demibrigades and two regiments of Cavalry. General d'Estaign commanded the advanced guard, consisting of one demibrigade, some light troops, and a detatchment of cavalry.

The action began by a false attack upon the left of the British, which was quickly repulsed. But the real attack was directed on the right; where a considerable force of infantry, sustained by a strong body of cavalry, charged in column, with a degree of vigour, which nothing short of British valour and discipline could have resisted. The French General had offered a louis-d'or per man to any thousand of his army who would turn the right of the British, and take the battery which defended it. The regiment called Bonaparte's

Bonaparte's Invincibles, volunteered for the service. They succeeded so far as to turn the right, between the battery and the walls of a large ruin. Three times the battery was stormed by different parties who were successively exterminated. The British reserve, consisting of the 42d regiment and the 28th, finding the enemy in their rear, faced about, charged them with the bayonet, and drove them back, step by step, into the inclosure of the ruin. Here Major Stirling took the standard of the Invincibles, and delivered it to Serjeant Sinclair; who being afterwards wounded by the stroke of a sabre on the head, and left for dead, the standard fell into the hands of a private of the 28th. Of nine hundred invincibles, six hundred and fifty were now stretched in the dust. The remaining two hundred and fifty were cooped up in the walls of the old ruin. Two of their officers presented themselves to Major Stirling, and begged their lives, which he granted.

In the mean time, the main body of the French, in a heavy column, broke through the British line, and forced along towards the rear of the camp. Their cavalry, the instant they broke through the line, wheeled to the left, and directed their charge upon the rear of the reserve. But the ground being full of pit-holes which had been dug for the soldiers to sleep in, before their tents could be landed, their charge was broken by that means, and three hundred of them were slain. The reserve being thus disengaged, faced about again upon the enemy; and were in time to do more good service, along with the centre of the army.

It was there that the Commander in chief was engaged and received his mortal wound. He had got embarassed among the French troops, when they

broke through the line, but was rescued by the valour of his own troops. To the first man who came up to him, he said, 'Soldier, if you know me, don't name 'me.' A French dragoon observing this, and finding what a prize he had lost, rode up to the General and made a cut at him, but the point of the sabre only grazed the skin. The dragoon's horse instantly wheeling about, he made a second attempt by lunge. The sabre only passed between the General's side and his right arm, which he immediately closed. At this instant the dragoon was shot dead, and the sabre remained in the General's possession.

About this time it was discovered that Sir Ralph had been wounded in the thigh, and he was entreated to have it examined. But he treated it as a trifle, and would not retire for a moment while the engagement continued. For two hours he rode about in that situation, during which the battle continued obstinate and fluctuating. At length the enemy began to retreat; which the British General no sooner saw than he fainted, through pain and loss of blood. His wound was now examined, and a large incision was made to extract the ball, but it could not be found. He was put upon a litter, and taken on board the Foudroyant, Lord Keith's ship, where he died on the 20th of the month. Thus fell Sir Ralph Abercromby, a man to whose character it will not be easy to do justice. He had endeared himself to his family, and to all who knew him, by the amiableness of his manners, by the tenderness of his affections, the benevolence of his disposition, the simplicity and integrity of his life, and the habitual practice of every relative and social duty. Of his skill and courage as a military officer he gave innumerable proofs during a service of forty-six years, in every station, from a Cornet in the dragoon

dragoon guards, to Commander in chief of the expedition in Egypt. He lived esteemed and beloved, and his death was deeply lamented, by the army, by all his acquaintance, and by his country at large.

The loss of the British army in this action, which was decisive of the fate of Egypt, amounted to 243 killed, 1193 wounded, and 32 missing; that of the enemy was never accurately stated, but was computed to be, in killed, wounded and prisoners, not less than 4000. Two pieces of cannon were taken, and the famous standard of the invincible legion, with all their victories emblazoned on it, became the prize of the brave 42d regiment, who annihilated the corps to whom it belonged.

On the 28th of March the Capitan Pacha arrived in Aboukir Bay with some ships of war and a number of transports, being the convoy that left the British fleet in its passage from Marmorice Bay, having about 5000 Turkish troops on board very indifferently clothed and armed. These joined a detachment under Colonel Spencer, who marched against Rosetta. When they arrived on the 9th of April within three miles of that place, they were informed that the French had evacuated the town, but had left a garrison in fort St Julian, which ſtood about three miles from that place on the Rosetta branch of the Nile. On the 10th they ſummoned that fort to ſurrender, but were answered by a peremptory refuſal. The ſummons was renewed on the 11th with no better ſucceſs. But the detachment being joined by four regiments from the grand army, the garriſon capitulated on the 19th. The terms were the ſame that had been granted to the garriſon of Aboukir. In it were found 275 men, and 20 pieces of artillery of different ſorts. In the river, cloſe under the walls

of the fort, were four gun-boats with twelve guns in each.

By the death of Sir Ralph Abercromby the command of the British army devolved upon Major General Hely Hutchinson. In consequence of the engagement of the 21st, he was under a necessity of taking a defensive position for some time. The troops were accordingly employed in strengthening and entrenching the camp before Alexandria, in erecting batteries, and getting up guns to them, and in bringing forward their ammunition. The French also were occupied in fortifying their position without the town; so that both camps were at last considered as impregnable. But General Hutchinson did not remain in a state of total inactivity. He made successive attacks upon those posts occupied by the enemy, the possession of which might facilitate the march of the Army to Cairo, should that become a necessary measure. With this view it was that he sent off the detachment under Colonel Spencer which has been already mentioned. They left the camp on the 2d of April.

The French in Alexandria endeavoured to seduce the foreign troops in the British service, General Hompsech's regiment of cavalry, by issuing proclamations, promising to receive them into the service of the Republic, or to send them to their own country. Three or four did actually desert, and the whole corps became suspected. The General, therefore, ordered them to be dismounted, and sent them along with a company of Turkish soldiers to garrison the castle of Aboukir.

On the 20th, Sir John Borlase Warren, after an anxious but vain pursuit of the French squadron under Gantheaume, in the Mediterranean, joined Lord Keith

Keith with six sail of the line. A cutter from England arrived two days before, which sailed through that squadron to the south of Sardinia. It consisted of seven sail of the line and four smaller vessels, and seemed to be steering for Toulon.

On the 22d, General Hutchinson having strengthened his position between Alexandria and Aboukir, transferred his head-quarters to Rosetta, with a view to proceed against Rhamanieh, where the French had collected a considerable force. On the 1st of May a messenger arrived from Osman Bey, the successor of Mourad, offering his services against the French. A few days before, information had been received that Admiral Blanket had arrived at Suez with about 600 troops, and would soon be followed by more who were already at Cosseire. On the 2d a party of French cavalry entered a village four miles in front of the British camp, and put all the inhabitants, men, women and children, to the sword. A party was sent out against them: But they had completed their scene of barbarity, and escaped.

The army under General Hutchinson left their camp near Rosetta on the 5th of May, and marched in two columns towards Rhamanieh. A detachment, consisting of a British regiment of Infantry and 1200 Albanians, with twenty dragoons, and six pieces of cannon, had been sent across the Nile the day before; and these were to march along the other side, under the command of Colonel Stewart, while the gun-boats on the river kept pace with the army. The French had 2300 infantry, and about 500 cavalry, with a strong body of artillery, at a place called El-Aft. These General Hutchinson resolved to attack; but they did not wait for him. Finding themselves flanked by Colonel

lonel Stewart's detachment on the eastern side of the river, they abandoned their position. In their retreat they were harassed by a body of Turkish cavalry, who, according to their custom, brought the heads of those whom they had killed, in triumph, to their camp.

The army marched forward to Rhamanieh, passing several villages that had been entirely desolated by the French troops. When they approached the place on the 9th of May, the enemy opened a smart fire from several field-pieces, which killed and wounded some of the cavalry. But their batteries and gun-boats were soon silenced, and they hastily retreated into the fort, and as hastily passed out of it on the other side, leaving only a garrison of 110 men, most of them wounded; so that the sole design of leaving them seems to have been to amuse the British army, and delay them during the following day. That day the garrison capitulated, and the fort was delivered up. Some skirmishing took place between Colonel Stewart's detachment and some small parties of French on the eastern side of the river. The greater part of the gun-boats and germes which the enemy had in this place fell into the hands of the victors. As the army moved forward along the banks of the Nile, they fell in on the 14th with a valuable convoy, consisting of sixteen germes, or vessels of the country, escorted by two hundred men which had sailed down from Cairo, and could not know that the French had evacuated Rhamanieh. They had on board all kinds of clothing, wine, spirits, &c. about 5000 pounds in money, and some pieces of heavy artillery, intended for the defence of Alexandria. The capture therefore

fore was not only valuable in itself but must also have been a severe loss to the enemy.

On the 17th information was received from some Arabs, that a considerable body of French were coming from Alexandria towards Cairo. And a detachment was sent out to intercept them. When the Commander of the convoy understood that he approached the British army, he turned aside into the desert. The British detachment followed him thither, and found him marching in a hollow square, with a body of Arabs harassing each face of it. Being summoned to surrender on condition that they should be sent to France, and their private property respected, they accepted the terms, and the whole body laid down their arms. This escort consisted of 635 men, 550 camels, 200 horses, and a large portion of the dromedary corps, with one five-pounder. The prisoners were all Frenchmen, and among their best troops.

The success of the British arms in Egypt had at length encouraged the Grand Vizier to march from Jaffa, at the head of 25000 men, with whom he reached Belbeis, 20 miles eastward of Cairo, on the 7th of May. General Belliard, who commanded the French in Cairo, having been strengthened by the arrival of Legrange from Rhamanieh with the troops that had evacuated that place, it was resolved to defeat the Vizier before he could form a junction with the army under General Hutchinson. By the advice of Major Holloway, and other British officers who were with him, the Grand Vizier anticipated their attack. As soon as he understood that they were in full march against him, he sent out 3000 horse, with orders to attack them during the night, if a favourable opportunity

nity offered; and if not, to impede their march. Understanding that the enemy had on the field 4000 infantry, 600 cavalry, and fourteen pieces of cannon, he sent forward reinforcements, and then advanced himself to take the command. The French took their position in a wood of date-trees, where the Turks attacked them with spirit for three hours. After this they changed their position different times, till at length they were compelled to retreat, and were driven beyond El-Hanka, seven miles from the place where the action began. About the same time Fort Lesbeh near Damietta, and two other small forts depending on it, surrendered to a detachment of the Grand Vizier's army.

General Hutchinson continued to march slowly towards Cairo till the 16th of June, when he took his ground about four miles from that city. A bridge of boats was immediately constructed, to open a communication with the Vizier's camp. Leaving a guard to protect the bridge, the army proceeded along the banks of the river, and encamped before Gizah, which is a kind of suburb to Cairo, standing on the opposite side of the river. As the French had a bridge of communication between the city and this place, it was essential to obtain possession of it. But all further operations were suspended in this quarter by a proposal on the part of General Belliard on the 22d for a supension of arms, that a negotiation might be entered into for the evacuation of Cairo and the forts belonging to it. This was readily agreed to; proper officers were appointed by both parties to conduct this business, and, after several days employed in adjusting the terms, a treaty was signed on the 27th, by which Belliard and his army were to evacuate Cairo, and all

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that part of Egypt which they then possessed, to proceed to Rosetta by the left bank of the Nile; to be there embarked within fifty days, with their arms, baggage and effects, and conveyed to France, at the expence of the allied powers. An exoneration was granted to such of the inhabitants as had espoused the cause of France. It was stipulated, that Menou and the troops at Alexandria might avail themselves of these conditions for the evacuation of that place, provided their intention of doing so was notified to the British General, commanding the troops before Alexandria, within ten days after the treaty should be communicated to them. By a private article it was agreed, that the wife, daughter, aid-de-camp, and effects of General Menou, which were then at Cairo, should be sent to Alexandria, by the allied powers.

Scarcely had the capitulation been signed when General Baird appeared on the banks of the Nile with an army from India. They had sailed from Bombay in the beginning of May, and had arrived at Cosseire on the 8th of June, after having lost two of their transports, and had many others damaged, in the dangerous navigation of the Red Sea. From Cosseire they travelled through the desart of Thebes by a defile of 150 miles, between mountains composed of barren rocks, where no particle of vegetation could be seen. This journey was accomplished in 18 days, and they arrived at Gennat, on the banks of the Nile, 400 miles above Cairo, about the 16th of June; but it was the 26th of August before they arrived at that city. After halting some weeks there they marched down the country, and encamped before Rosetta. That army consisted of 5000 British, and 2000 Seapoys. But what a mortification did they endure,

when, after suffering so many hardships, they saw all the work done, and all the laurels gathered, by their brethren before they came?

Menou, far from accepting the terms offered him by the treaty of Cairo, increased the fortifications round Alexandria, particularly at Nicopolis; and, in his dispatches avowed his determination to bury himself under its ruins. In the mean time, the march from Cairo to Aboukir was conducted with a degree of order, and even of harmony, that must appear surprising, when we consider the numerous troops that composed it, their characters, and relative situations. It was made up of Britons, Turks, and Frenchmen, who had lately been in a state of the most determined hostility. The care of this difficult business was entrusted to General Moore; and it was accomplished without any disagreeable occurrence.—The French army from Cairo, amounting to 13,000 persons and upwards, exclusive of 1000 sick, and a number of invalids, were all embarked at Aboukir by the 8th of August, and sailed for France in three divisions, consisting of two ships of war, and about fifteen transports each.

Alexandria was now closely invested, the troops being returned thither which had escorted the French army from Cairo to Aboukir. Provisions being scarce, to relieve the place from a number of useless mouths, Menou ordered the philosophers and artists to depart for France. They embarked in a small vessel, but the British fleet would not allow them to pass. Attempting to return, Menou threatened to sink them. And it was not till after several days, during which they were supported by the British, that they were permitted to enter the city. That General had not given

given over hopes of receiving the succours entrusted to Gantheaume; who, after continuing two days within thirty leagues of Alexandria, on being discovered by the British fleet, was obliged to bear away for France.

On the 16th of August, Colonel Spencer had taken possession of a hill in front of the enemy's right, with about 200 men of the 30th regiment. Menou happened to be in this part of the works; and as he had often upbraided his troops in most opprobrious terms, for their pusillanimity in former engagements, six hundred of the flower of the French army volunteered their services to drive Colonel Spencer's corps from their post, hoping thereby to regain the confidence of their General. They came forward with the spirit of men resolved to conquer or die; but they met with a spirit more than equal to their own. Instead of retiring from a force so very superior, Colonel Spencer drew up his men, and led them with fixed bayonets to meet the charge. The shock was more dreadful than can be described; but British nerve prevailed. Many of the French were killed, many were taken prisoners, and the rest fled in confusion to their entrenchments.

The same day General Coote, with a body of 5000 men, embarked on the lake Mareotis, with a view to invest Alexandria on that side, and to cut off all hope of reinforcements or supplies by land. To prevent interruption in their landing, Captain Stevenson who commanded the Flotilla, stationed himself in front of the gun boats which the enemy had assembled on the lakes. Despairing of being able to preserve their vessels, the French endeavoured to convert them into fire-ships, in order to throw the British flotilla into

confusion. But they failed in the attempt, and were all burnt but three which were taken.

The troops were landed next morning without opposition, and proceeded to the attack of the castle of Marabout, situated on a small island to protect the entrance of the great harbour of Alexandria, about 7 miles westward of the town. The batteries were opened before it on the 18th, and on the 21st it capitulated. The garrison, consisting of 180 men, marched out with the honours of war, and were sent to France, but not to serve till exchanged. In this affair the British detachment suffered no loss. Next day General Coote moved forward against a division of the enemy who were strongly posted on a ridge of hills, and drove them within the walls of Alexandria with considerable loss of men, besides seven pieces of heavy cannon which they were obliged to leave behind them.

After sundry skirmishes of small importance, but which all terminated in a manner the most honourable to the British troops, four batteries on each side of the town were opened on the 26th against the enemy's entrenched camp, which soon silenced many of their guns. In the evening of the 27th, Menou sent to demand an armistice of three days, in order to prepare a capitulation. This was granted; but the terms not being agreed upon within that time, hostilities recommenced in the morning of the 30th, and continued till eight o'clock the same evening, when another flag of truce came in, and the firing ceased.

At length the capitulation was signed on Wednesday the 2d of September. Sundry extravagant articles were proposed by Menou, which the British commanders absolutely refused. The terms agreed upon were

were much the same with those which had been granted to Belliard.—Thus terminated the contest between the British and French armies in Egypt, in the total expulsion of the latter from that country. And when we consider that the British forces had to march through a country that presented innumerable difficulties, that they had to contend with an enemy which had been established in Egypt for upwards of two years, inured to its burning climate, and in possession of all the fortified places; and that the hostile army exceeded, by several thousands, the number of British troops employed against them; it will not be easy to find an instance of laurels better earned in the history of any age or nation. Nor has their country been backward to acknowledge their prowess, and reward it.

The loss of the British in the whole of this arduous conflict, besides the incalculable loss of their gallant Commander in Chief, which was ably supplied by his successor, amounted to twenty-three officers, and about seven or eight hundred privates. Very different was the fate of France, which besides having her navy almost annihilated in this expedition, employed in it 40,000 of her best troops, of whom 23,000 were sent back to France. Thus the number of French who evacuated the country exceeded that of all the British who were landed in it by about 6,000 men.

Soon after the evacuation of Egypt by the French, an event took place that had almost given occasion to hostilities between the British and Turkish forces in that country. The Turks had secretly determined to abolish the dominion of the Beys in Egypt. With that view, seven Beys were invited to Alexandria, under pretence of holding a conference with the

the Capitan Pacha, for the re-establishment of their authority. They were received with every demonstration of respect, and invited to go on board a frigate, to accompany the Capitan Pacha in a visit of ceremony to the British General. They went aboard the boats that were to convey them to the ship, whither he promised to follow them, though his real design was to send them to Constantinople. In the boats they began to suspect treachery, and demanded to be carried back to the shore. This being refused, they betook themselves to their arms, and a seuffle ensued, in which four of them were killed, and the other three wounded. The Grand Vizier too attempted to secure as many of the Beys as he could by force or fraud.

Disgusted with such treachery and barbarity, General Hutchinson ordered his troops under arms, remonstrated severely with the Grand Vizier and Capitan Pacha, and, in a menacing tone, demanded the wounded Beys, the bodies of those that were killed for honourable sepulture, and the liberty of those who were in the power of the Vizier. His demands were complied with, for the Turks durst not refuse them. But the Beys, being left at their own disposal, and afraid what might happen after the British forces should have left Egypt, hearkened to the fair promises that were made them, relinquished their authority in Egypt, and signified their having done so in writing, both to the Grand Signior and to General Hutchinson. In consequence of which, Egypt was put under the government of Pachas, in the same manner as the rest of the Turkish empire.

The remains of Sir Ralph Abercromby were put on board a frigate and conveyed to Malta, where they were

were interred with all military honours, in a vault prepared for that purpose, in the Bastion of St John, in the castle of St Elmo, on Wednesday the 29th of April 1801.

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CHAP. XXI.

Progress of the War in 1800—*Capture of Goree and Curacoa—Gallant defence of Porto Ferrajo—Loss of the Repulse, and the Queen Charlotte—Exploits at sea—Unsuccessful negotiation—Scarcity—Transactions in Parliament—Army returns—British Parliament superceded, and Union Parliament called to meet—Combination of the Northern powers—Offence taken by Sweden and Denmark—Convention with Denmark—Animosity of the Russian Emperor—British ships detained in his ports, and the sailors imprisoned—Armed neutrality—Hanover occupied by Prussian troops—Danes take possession of Hamburgh, and prepare for war—Expedition under Sir Hyde Parker—Battle of Copenhagen—Death of Paul—Moderation of Alexander—Treaty of Petersburg—Restitutions—Change of Ministry—Imperial Parliament meets—Debates on the address—A new speaker chosen—Lord Darnley's motion for an Enquiry into the conduct of Ministers, negatived—Similar motion in the House of Commons, rejected—Martial law continued in Ireland—Suspension of the habeas corpus, and the bill against seditious meetings, continued—Report of the secret committee of the house of Lords—Preparations in France for an invasion of Britain, and in Britain for repelling it—Disposition of the British naval force—Gantheaume's Squadron—Battle of Algeziras—Second engagement—War between Spain and Portugal—Treaty of Badajoz—French enter Portugal—British troops occupy Madeira—Exploits at sea—Attack upon the French flotilla at Boulogne unsuccessful—Second attack likewise*

wise unsuccessful—Preliminaries signed—Definitive treaty—Reflections.

AS Great Britain took little part in the war on the Continent during the campaign of 1800; as our enemies had few colonies left in their possession; as there was no general engagement at sea, and as the main attention of our government was directed towards the Egyptian expedition, few events took place that year which deserve to be related besides those that have been already mentioned.

In the beginning of April, Captain Sir Charles Hamilton, of his Majesty's ship Melpomene, cruising off the coast of Africa, with a small squadron under his command, had been informed that three French frigates were at anchor under the forts of Goree, and went thither in search of them. Not finding the frigates, he summoned the island to surrender. This the French commander thought proper to comply with, and Sir Charles took possession of it in his Majesty's name on the 5th of the month. He afterwards sent a party of 30 men, in two boats, to take possession of Jool, a factory dependent on Goree; which they performed, and brought back from thence a French brigantine and sloop loaded with rice.

In the beginning of September the Dutch island of Curacoa, in the West Indies, was surrendered to Captain Watkins of his Majesty's ship Nereide. Some resistance seems to have been made by a few French that were upon the island, but they were soon compelled to retire. And the Dutch Governor consented that the island and its dependencies should be under the protection, and subject to the government of his Britannic Majesty; the inhabitants being secured in

their persons, properties, and religion, and being allowed the same free trade as the island of Jamaica.

In the month of October, when the French entered Tuscany, a number of British who were in Leghorn, under the conduct of Mr Isaac Grant, who had been the vice-consul at that port, took refuge in Porto Ferrajo, in the island of Elba. At his instigation, the inhabitants formed the resolution of defending themselves against the republicans. Not only did the men take up arms, but even the women took an active part in the defence of the place. It received supplies, with 300 soldiers, most of them artillery-men, from the squadron under Sir John Borlase Warren. Some Neapolitans, and 400 Corsicans in British pay, augmented the garrison to 1500 men. It was invested on the land side by a French army 5000 strong. Batteries were raised; the town and fortress were bombarded; twice were attempts made to storm the place; but the assailants were repulsed with great loss. A sally was made by the besieged, led on by Mr Grant, and the principal batteries of the French were destroyed. The besieging army was reinforced, and the bombardment was ready to commence afresh, in the beginning of August 1801, when the inhabitants were summoned by the Count of Ventura, minister of the king of Etruria, to surrender to their new sovereign: they answered, That they acknowledged no sovereign but the Grand Duke of Tuscany. The bombardment was then re-commenced from four mortars, which did great damage.

On the 14th of September Sir John Warren came before Porto Ferrajo, with seven ships of the line, three frigates, and two brigs. His ships were prevented from entering the harbour; but having brought

3000

3000 troops for the relief of the brave garrison, he landed them, along with a detachment of sailors, in different points, as near to Porto Ferrajo as possible. At the same instant the garrison made a sally, and had got possession of the French battery which prevented the British squadron from entering the harbour, and the ships came in at that moment. The British forces had moved forward about a mile and a half from the beach, when the French General Martin, seizing a favourable opportunity, attacked them with the bayonet, and, after an obstinate engagement, obliged them to retreat to their ships. The party who had sallied out of the city was attacked by another French corps, who retook the battery, turned the guns on the British ships, and obliged them to retire out of the harbour. This disaster in part was compensated to the garrison by a more successful sally which they made some time after, when they not only got possession of the outer entrenchments of the French camp, but likewise of the post of Madonna della Grazia. In short, they continued to defend the place till the confirmation of the peace between Britain and France.

The fleet commanded by Sir John Borlase Warren having on board a number of troops under the command of Sir James Pulteney, arrived before the harbour of Ferrol on the 15th of August 1800. And it was determined to make an attempt upon the town. The troops were landed without opposition in a small bay near Cape Prior. But after some skirmishing with parties of the enemy, and observing the situation of the place, Sir James thought it proper to desist; and the troops were re-embarked the next day.

This year two of his Majesty's ships of the line were lost at sea. The first was the Repulse of 64 guns,

belonging to the Channel fleet. She had been ordered to cruize off the Penmarks, with a view to intercept some provision vessels going into Brest. Being driven out of her reckoning by the current, assisted by a violent gale of wind, she struck on a sunken rock 25 leagues south east of Ushant. She was got off after three quarters of an hour, but so much damaged that it was only by great exertions that she was kept afloat till she approached the shore near Quimper. In getting ashore eleven of the crew lost their lives. The rest were made prisoners, excepting two lieutenants, two midshipmen, and eight sailors, who, preferring the dangers of the sea to the horrors of a French prison, betook themselves to the large cutter, and, after suffering great hardships, arrived at Guernsey four days after the accident, which happened on the 10th of February.

The other was the Queen Charlotte of 100 guns, Lord Keith's flag ship. His Lordship was on shore at Leghorn, consulting with the Austrian Commander about an attack upon the island of Cabrera, of which the French were then in possession. The island lies about 25 miles from Leghorn, and his Lordship had sent the Queen Charlotte to reconnoitre it, with 837 persons on board. On the morning of the 17th of March he discovered her to be on fire four or five leagues out at sea. Immediately he sent off all the vessels and boats he could collect to her assistance. But the fire raged with such violence, that all efforts to stop its progress were abortive. About 11 o'clock she blew up with a terrible explosion, and in a moment left not a wreck behind. All that could be saved of her crew amounted only to 158 persons, who were brought to Leghorn in different vessels.

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A multitude of vessels, armed and unarmed, were taken from the enemy this year as usual. And many gallant exploits were performed by our naval heroes. Two or three may serve as examples.

The first to be mentioned is that of Captain Hamilton of the Surprize frigate. Having information that the Hermione, late one of his Majesty's frigates, which had been carried by her mutinous crew into a Spanish port some time before, was moored in the harbour of Porto Cavallo, he determined to cut her out by the boats of his ship, though there were about 200 pieces of cannon mounted on the batteries. He accordingly boarded the vessel with 50 chosen men, while the rest who were in the boats cut the cables, and the British frigate came down at the same time. The forecastle was carried without much difficulty; the quarter-deck was disputed for fifteen minutes; but the main-deck held out much longer, nor could it be secured till both cables had been cut, sail made on the ship, and the boats sent a head to tow. At last the enemy retreated between decks, and there continued firing till their ammunition was expended. They then called for quarter, and the ship was brought off in triumph.

A similar atchievement was performed by Captain Campbell of the Dart frigate, on the 7th of July. Captain Inman of the Andromeda was sent with his own frigate, the Dart, a number of cutters, and gun-boats, and fire-ships, to endeavour to take or destroy some French frigates that lay in Dunkirk roads. The enemy had been apprized of their coming, and most of them found means to escape by cutting their cables. But Captain Inman had directed Captain Campbell to get in, if possible, to the eastermost of the enemy's

nemy's frigates, while he expected that the westermost, (for there were four of them) would be entangled with the first fire-ship. Captain Campbell immediately made up to her in the most intrepid manner, boarded her, carried her in less than a quarter of an hour, and brought her out, though she carried 40 guns and 350 men, and the Dart is only a frigate of 30 guns.

Not inferior to either of these was the enterprize undertaken by Lieutenant Coghlan, of the Viper cutter, on the night of July the 29th. When watching the harbour of Port Louis, on the coast of France, he thought he could succeed in boarding some of the cutters or gun-vessels which were moving about the entrance of the harbour. For this purpose he obtained from Sir Edward Pelew a ten-oared cutter with 12 volunteers. With these, and seven other men, making in all 20 in this boat, accompanied by his own boat and another from the Amethyst, he determined upon boarding a gun-brig mounting three long 24 pounders, and four 6 pounders, full of men, moored with springs on her cables, in a port of difficult access, within pistol-shot of three batteries, surrounded by several armed craft, and not a mile from a 74 gun ship and two frigates. Though he lost the aid of the other two boats, and found the enemy at quarters, having discovered his approach; yet he determined to attack alone, and boarded her on the quarter. But unhappily jumping into a trawl-net which had been hung up to dry, he was pierced through the thigh with a pike. Several of his men were hurt, and all knocked back into the boat. Unchecked in ardour, they hauled the boat further a-head, boarded again, and maintained the fight against 87 men till they

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forced them to yield, killing six, and wounding 20, among whom was every officer in the vessel. Their own loss was one killed and eight wounded. Mr Coghlan himself had two wounds, and Mr Paddon a midshipman, had six. The vessel named Le Cerbere, was towed out under a very heavy fire, and given up by the squadron as a prize to the captors; a well-earned reward of such unequalled bravery.

In the month of August this year, proposals were made by Mr Otto who resided in London as commissary from the French government, for the exchange of prisoners, relative to a negotiation for peace; and a number of papers passed between Lord Grenville and him on the subject. But as the French consul insisted, that there should be a naval armistice during the negotiation, or else that Britain should treat only for a separate peace, without including her allies, to neither of which the British court would agree, the affair came to nothing. With regard to the proposal of a naval armistice, it is certain that such a thing had never been proposed before, nor could Britain have complied with it without doing manifest injury to herself; as it must have opened the enemy's ports, and allowed them not only to import warlike stores, but also to send out forces by sea, to Egypt, to Malta, or any other part of the world; so that if they thought proper to break off the negotiation, as they had formerly done, and renew hostilities, they might do it with much advantage which they did not enjoy before. And as to making a separate peace, though in the course of this war Britain had been deserted by all her allies, we may reflect with satisfaction that she has always kept faith with them, and

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has never deserted any of them, while they continued true to themselves.

At this time there was such a scarcity and dearth of provisions in Britain as had not taken place for some generations before. In the month of October a petition was presented to his Majesty by the city of London, praying him to convene the Parliament, that they might take measures for the relief of the people. His Majesty's answer was, that he had already given orders for that purpose. Accordingly the British Parliament met, for the last time, on the 11th of November. And a great part of their short session was spent in making sundry wise and salutary regulations concerning that matter. Committees were appointed by both houses, to enquire into the causes of the high price of provisions, and consider of the best remedies. Bills were passed, prohibiting the use of grain in distilleries, or in the manufacture of starch; prohibiting the exportation of rice; enabling his Majesty to prohibit, for a time, the exportation of provisions; granting a bounty on the importation of grain; permitting the importation of herrings, and other fish, from Nova Scotia, and places adjacent, duty free; as also of Swedish herrings; allowing the use of salt, duty free, for curing herrings and pilchards; for allowing to his Majesty the sum of L.50,000 to be employed for purchasing herrings, to be distributed through the kingdom; for prohibiting the manufacture of flour, finer than a specified standard; and continuing an act made in the last session, prohibiting the selling of bread till it had been baked 24 hours.

It deserves to be mentioned to the honour of the nation, that, besides the measures pursued by the legislature

ſlature for the relief of the ſuffering poor, Societies were formed, and funds were provided for that purpoſe, in almoſt all places of the country. And Divine Providence put it into the hearts of thoſe who were in ability, in every rank of life, to contribute with a liberality unexampled in former times; ſo that the poor in reality ſuffered leſs than could have been expected in ſuch a dearth of proviſions.

In this ſeſſion, ſhort as it was, there was no little wrangling about the war. His Majeſty in his ſpeech, made ſome reference to the correſpondence above-mentioned, between the French Government and the Britiſh Court, relative to opening a negotiation. That correſpondence was laid before both houſes on the 13th of November. On the 18th the minority made a motion in the Houſe of Commons, for a copy of Lord Keith's letter to General Kleber, concerning the evacuation of Egypt, inſiſting much upon a ſuppoſed breach of faith in Miniſtry's diſannulling the convention that Sir Sidney Smith had conſented to. Nothing elſe was neceſſary to refute this charge, but a ſimple ſtatement of facts as they have been above narrated.

In the other houſe Lord Holland made a more extenſive motion, for copies of all letters written by the Engliſh ambaſſador at Conſtantinople to Sir Sidney Smith while at Acre or El-Ariſch, of all inſtructions ſent to the Commander of the Mediterranean fleet, and of all letters written by him to the French Commander in Egypt. So little attention did their Lordſhips pay to this buſineſs, that when the houſe divided upon the motion, only fourteen were preſent, and it was rejected by twelve againſt two.

On the 1ſt of December Mr Sheridan made a long ſpeech, in which he aſſerted that our allies on the continent had

always been influenced by ſelfiſh motives, and therefore we ſhould ſhake ourſelves looſe of them; and that our miniſtry had never been in earneſt in their negotiations for peace, for which cauſe they ſhould be removed. And he concluded with moving an addreſs, the ſubſtance of which was, to beſeech his Majeſty to make a ſeparate peace with France with all covenient ſpeed. This motion being negatived by 136 votes againſt 35, Mr Jones was more explicit three days after. But how little the members intereſted themſelves in the debate appeared manifeſt, when on a diviſion there were only for the motion 13, and againſt it 66.

On the 31ſt of December, the Secretary at war laid the *Army Returns* before the Houſe of Commons, from which we may gather a variety of intereſting particulars relative to the war. It appeared that the number of men raiſed for the ſervice of the army, ſince the war commenced was 208,888. The number of men who had been diſcharged, including thoſe who had been transferred from one regiment to another, was 75,910. The number of thoſe who had been killed in action, or died in the ſervice was 48,971. And the number of effective men, including invalids, militia, and foreign corps, as well as regular and fencible troops, ſerving at that time in the pay of Great Britain was 168,082.

The bill for continuing the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act for ſix weeks after the 1ſt of February 1801, and that continuing the alien bill for ſix months after the peace, were among the laſt acts of the Britiſh Parliament. Theſe did not paſs without oppoſition. But the arguments both for and againſt them had been ſo often hackneyed before, that it would be treſpaſſing upon the reader's patience to repeat them. On the laſt day of the year, his Majeſty, after giving the royal aſſent

aſſent to ſuch bills as were ready for it, put an end to the ſeſſion, and to the exiſtence of the Britiſh Parliament by a ſpeech in which, after thanking both houſes for their attention to the public diſtreſs, and expreſſing his hope that the ſubject would be reſumed with the ſame zeal and temper on the firſt meeting of the parliament of the united kingdom; he informed them of an outrage committed againſt the law of nations, and againſt exiſting treaties, by the detention of Britiſh ſhips in the ports of Ruſſia, and the impriſonment of the ſailors; and expreſſed his confidence of the ſupport of parliament in the meaſures which he ſhould find neceſſary to be taken on that account.

As the union between Britain and Ireland was to commence the next day, which was the firſt of the new year, and of the new century, the King, before he retired, ordered a proclamation to be read, declaring, That the individuals who compoſed the expiring parliament ſhould be members, on the part of Britain, of the united kingdom; and that this Imperial Parliament ſhould meet on the 22d day of January 1801. The next day a proclamation was iſſued, appointing, that in conſequence of the union, the royal ſtyle and titles ſhould be thus expreſſed in Latin: *Georgius tertius, Dei Gratia, Britanniarum rex, fidei defensor;* and in Engliſh thus, "George the Third, by the grace of God, "of the United Kingdom of Britain and Ireland, King, "Defender of the Faith." It likewiſe determined what were to be the armorial enſigns of the united kingdom, and the flags to be borne at ſea.

The extravagant conduct of the emperor of Ruſſia, referred to in the King's ſpeech, was only part of a plan formed by Bonaparte, and in which he found means to engage the powers of the north of Europe, for effectu-

ally humbling the pride of Britain by deſtroying her power at ſea. Theſe powers were the more eaſily prevailed upon to take part in the ſcheme, as they had all conceived offences at ſome parts of the conduct of Britain towards them: of which it will now be proper to give ſome account.

As early as the month of January 1798, a fleet of Swediſh merchant-men, carrying pitch, tar, hemp, deals, and iron, to ſeveral ports of France, and ſailing under convoy of a ſhip of war, was met by ſome Britiſh cruiſers who inſiſted upon ſearching the veſſel according to cuſtom. To this the Swede made reſiſtance. In conſequence of which the whole fleet was taken, carried into a Britiſh port and condemned. An incident ſtill more offenſive took place on the 4th of September 1800. Two Spaniſh frigates were then riding at ſingle anchor in the inner harbour of Barcelona. Two Britiſh men of war, with a frigate, blocked up the port. On that day the frigate accompanied by a boat from one of the ſhips of the line, boldly entered the harbour with an intent to attack and carry off the two Spaniſh veſſels. On their way they fell in with a Swediſh merchantmen that was paſſing them under ſail. To expedite their ſcheme, they laid the Swede alongſide, put a number of their men on board her, and towed her into the harbour. The Spaniards not expecting ſuch a viſit were in no caſe to make reſiſtance. The veſſels were ſoon carried and towed down the mole in triumph. But the officers, with a view to excuſe their unwarlike conduct, endeavoured to turn the reſentment of the court of Madrid upon the Swediſh ſhip which was preſſed into the Britiſh ſervice.

The King of Spain immediately wrote circular letters to all the foreign ambaſſadors reſident at his court, complaining

complaining of this affair; and gave a more minute information of it to the Swediſh government, whom he exhorted to demand ſatisfaction for the inſult offered to their flag. A ſimilar exhortation was addreſſed to them ſoon after by the Batavian Republic. And though the King of Sweden gave not much encouragement to the interference of either of theſe powers, he ſoon proved that he did not need their excitements to aſſert what he thought the rights of his flag. And he knew that an opportunity would not long be wanting.

The Court of Denmark had taken ſimilar offence at ſome things in the conduct of Britain. Some Daniſh ſhips had been brought into our ports, which were afterwards found to have no contraband goods on board. And though they were diſcharged as ſoon as this was diſcovered, their detention occaſioned both vexation and loſs. In the month of December 1799, a Daniſh frigate which convoyed ſome merchant veſſels was met by ſome Britiſh frigates in the vicinity of Gibraltar. When the Britiſh captain ſent ſome boats to examine the convoy, the Dane fired upon one of them and wounded a Britiſh ſailor; he ſeized another boat, and refuſed to releaſe her till threatened with immediate hoſtilities. He then ſtood in for Gibraltar Bay, and ſome diſcuſſions took place between Lord Keith, who was there with his ſquadron, and him. He ſaid he acted according to his inſtructions, but refuſed to ſhew them. On this ſubject a complaint was made by the Britiſh envoy at Copenhagen, and upon a diſavowal of the Captain's conduct by that court the affair was amicably ſettled.

A more ſerious affray took place on the 25th of July 1800, between a Daniſh frigate the Freya, and four Britiſh frigates, in the mouth of the Channel. An officer

ficer from the foremoſt of the four was ſent on board the Freya, deſiring to ſearch the convoy. The Daniſh Captain, whoſe name was Crab, replied, that without acting contrary to his inſtructions he could not allow the convoy to be ſearched. The Britiſh Commodore inſiſted upon his demand, and was about to ſend on board the merchantmen for that purpoſe, when Crab aſſured him that the boats would be fired upon. The Commodore's ſhip, which lay a-breaſt of the Freya, then gave her a broadſide which was inſtantly returned. Having ſuſtained the unequal conteſt for ſome ſhort time, Captain Crab ſtruck his colours. The Freya and all her convoy were taken and carried into the Downs.

To prevent thoſe extremities which might have been the conſequences of this affair, Lord Whitworth was ſent with a ſpecial commiſſion to the court of Denmark. And to give weight to his repreſentations, he was ſupported by a ſquadron of nine ſhips of the line, with four bomb-ſhips, and five gun-veſſels, under the command of Vice-Admiral Dickſon. This ſquadron arrived at the entrance of the Sound about the 16th of Auguſt, found four Daniſh ſhips of the line ſtretched across from Cronberg Caſtle to the Swediſh ſhore. On the 19th, after apprizing the Daniſh Commodore of his intention, Admiral Dickſon bore up for Elſineur. Various manœuvres took place by which the two ſquadrons ſhewed their jealouſy of one another, but without any act of hoſtility on either part, till the Britiſh bomb-veſſels were in ſuch a ſituation that they could have bombarded Copenhagen, and could have been protected by the ſquadron in that ſervice.

Finding matters at this paſs, the Daniſh government came into terms; and on the 29th a convention was ſigned

ſigned by Lord Whitworth and the Daniſh Miniſter, the ſubſtance of which was, that the Daniſh frigate and her convoy ſhould be repaired at the expence of Britain and releaſed; that the right of the Britiſh to viſit convoys ſhould be left to a further negotiation at London; that until this point ſhould be decided, Danish ſhips ſhould only ſail under convoy in the Mediterranean to protect them from the Algerine cruizers; and that Daniſh ſhips ſhould be liable to be ſearched as heretofore. But as this diſpute was not finally ſettled, though hushed for a ſeaſon, Denmark continued to ſtrengthen her naval force.

Paul, the emperor of Ruſſia, whoſe animoſity againſt Britain was ſtill on the increaſe, hearing of the capture of the Daniſh frigate with her convoy, laid an embargo on all Britiſh veſſels in his ports. He took it off again as ſoon as he learned that the difference had been adjuſted; but his zealous endeavours were continued to unite the other powers of the North with himſelf in a confederacy againſt Great Britain. He made the moſt active preparations for naval war in all his ports. He likewiſe increaſed his land forces, ſent an army towards the frontiers of Turkey; and as Bonaparte was now become his idol, it was thought that a plan was formed between them for intimidating the Turk into ſome meaſures as favourable to France as they were prejudicial to Britain.

But his principal ſcheme was the revival of the armed neutrality of 1780. This intention he publiſhed in the Peterſburgh gazette in the end of October. And on the 7th of November, he publiſhed an official note, which he ſent to all the Ambaſſadors at his court—intimating, that whereas the iſland of Malta had ſurrendered to the Engliſh troops, and it was uncertain whether

whether the agreement of the 30th of December 1798 would be fulfilled, by which that iſland was to be reſtored to the Knights of St John, of whom Paul called himſelf grand maſter; therefore he had given command to lay an embargo on all Engliſh veſſels in his ports till the above convention ſhould be fulfilled.

In conſequence of theſe orders, not only was an embargo laid upon nearly 300 Britiſh ſhips in the ports of Ruſſia, but their crews, with their commanders, were taken out of the ſhips and ſent priſoners into the interior parts of the country, from a hundred to a thouſand miles diſtance. On ſhore, all Britiſh property was ſequeſtrated; ſeals were put on all warehouſes containing Britiſh goods; and the owners were obliged to enter into recogniſances, to take inventories of their effects, and report the ſame to government. When the embargo was laid on at Narva on the 5th of November, the crews of two of the veſſels ſeeing an armed force preparing to ſeize them, kept them off with piſtols and cutlaſſes, weighed anchor, and ſtood out to ſea. This ſo enraged the emperor, that he ordered all the other Britiſh ſhips in that port to be burnt. The authority of Paul, together with the maritime intereſts of Sweden and Denmark, and their wounded pride, produced that confederacy among the powers of the North againſt Britain, which went by the name of a *Convention for the re-eſtabliſhment of an armed neutrality, &c.* It was ſigned at Peterſburgh on the 16th of December by Ruſſia, Sweden and Denmark, and on the 19th by Pruſſia.

The ſcope of this treaty was, that no goods ſhould be conſidered as contraband, except cannons, mortars, fire arms, balls, flints, matches, gun-powder, ſalt-petre, ſulphur, helmets, ſwords, hangers, cartridge-boxes, ſaddles

ſaddles and bridles; that all other goods in neutral ſhips ſhould be free, though belonging to the ſubjects of belligerent powers; that the declaration of the officers of ſuch ſhips of war as ſhould be convoying merchant ſhips, that the convoy had no contraband goods on board, ſhould be ſufficient; and that no ſearch ſhould be permitted. Each of the contracting powers were to fit out a number of ſhips of war, which were to be charged to ſee this object attained. The ſhips of war belonging to any of the contracting powers were to protect the merchant veſſels of the others as well as their own. And if any inſult ſhould be committed, or an attack made upon any of them, by any of the belligerent powers, it was to be a common cauſe.

In conſequence of theſe hoſtile meaſures, the government of Britain, on the 14th of January 1801, laid an embargo, not only on all Ruſſian ſhips, but on all veſſels belonging to Sweden or Denmark. And letters of marque were granted for the purpoſe of capturing a great many veſſels richly laden, which were known to be working their way to the Baltic. Many were taken accordingly, particularly Swedes and Danes; ſo that of 450 Swediſh ſhips that were abroad, 200 were either taken at ſea or detained in Britiſh harbours.

Sundry official notes paſſed between the Britiſh miniſtry and the miniſters of the combined powers, but without any other effect than increaſing the mutual irritation. At length the King of Pruſſia publiſhed a declaration on the 30th of March 1801, addreſſed to the royal and electoral college of Hanover, in which he ſaid he was compelled to take the moſt effectual meaſures for the ſupport of the convention, in conformity to the obligations he had contracted. For this purpoſe he would not only ſhut the mouths of the Elbe, the We-

ſer and the Ems, but alſo take poſſeſſion of the ſtates in Germany belonging to the King of England, as elector of Brunſwick Lunenburg; the Pruſſian troops to be ſubſiſted at the expence of the electoral territory. To this the regency of Hanover conſented, by a convention dated the 3d of April. The Pruſſian troops accordingly entered the territory of Hanover, and were poſted chiefly on the banks of the Elbe and the Weſer. An embargo was laid on all Britiſh veſſels; but ſome which had taken a lading of grain on board were ſuffered to depart.

About the ſame time a body of Daniſh troops, to the number of 15000, took poſſeſſion of Hamburgh, for the declared purpoſe of ſtopping the Britiſh navigation and trade on the Elbe. An embargo had already been laid on the Britiſh ſhips in all the ports of Denmark: and the moſt active preparations for war were carried on in the ports of Denmark, as well as in thoſe of Ruſſia and Sweden. The great object was to guard the paſſage of the Sound: Beſides the fortreſſes of Helſingburg and Cronenberg, which were garriſoned with two regiments each, batteries were erected both on the Swediſh and Daniſh ſides, in every place where they could bear on the Engliſh ſhips, as alſo on the iſland of Amack, and on Sproe in the Belt. Theſe batteries were provided with the means of firing red hot balls if neceſſary. The naval batteries in the port of Copenhagen were put in a complete ſtate of defence.

The Britiſh miniſtry determined once more to make trial of the method that had been attended with ſucceſs ſix months before. This was to ſend a negotiator to Copenhagen, backed by a ſtrong fleet in the Cattegate. Accordingly on the 12th of March a fleet ſailed from Yarmouth for the Baltic, under the command of Sir Hyde

Hyde Parker, conſiſting of 18 ſhips of the line, four frigates, and a number of bomb-veſſels and gun-boats. It had on board ſeveral regiments of marines and ſome rifle-men. In the mean time, Mr Vanſittart was ſent off in a frigate with a flag of truce, and arrived at Elſineur on the 20th with an ultimatum, which was offered to the Court of Denmark. But as it was rejected, he and Mr Drummond, who had been the Britiſh miniſter at Copenhagen, obtained paſſports and returned home.

The Britiſh fleet, ſoon after ſailing, loſt one of its line of battle ſhips. The Invincible of 74 guns, bearing Admiral Totty's flag, ſtruck on a ridge of ſand, and was ſo much damaged that ſhe ſoon after ſunk. The Admiral with a few officers, 164 ſeamen, and 19 marines were ſaved. All the reſt of her crew periſhed. The reſt of the fleet came to an anchor on the 23d of the month off the northern coaſt of Zealand. From thence Admiral Parker ſent a note to the governor of Cronenberg caſtle, to know if he had orders to fire on the Britiſh fleet as they paſſed into the Sound. His anſwer was, that he was not at liberty to ſuffer a fleet whoſe intentions were not known to approach the guns of the caſtle. The Admiral ſent back a reply, ſignifying that he conſidered the Governor's note as a declaration of war; and, with whatever reluctance, muſt commence hoſtilities.

On the 30th of March the fleet paſſed the Sound. They were fired on by Cronenberg caſtle, which they bombarded in their turn, but little damage was done on either ſide. There was no firing from the Swediſh ſide, which enabled them to paſs at the greater diſtance from Cronenberg. The Admiral, accompanied by Lord Nelſon and Rear-Admiral Graves reconnoitred the

formidable line of veſſels ſtationed in the road of Copenhagen. It conſiſted of ſix ſhips of the line, eleven floating batteries, one bomb veſſel, and a number of galleys, fire-ſhips and gun-boats. They were flanked by batteries on the two iſlands called the Crowns, mounting 88 pieces of cannon. Theſe again were commanded by two 70 gun ſhips, and a large frigate, in the inner road; and two 64 gun ſhips without maſts, were moored at the entrance of the Arſenal. There were alſo ſome batteries on the Iſland of Amack.

It being determined to attack the Danes from the ſouthward, and Lord Nelſon having offered his ſervices for conducting the buſineſs, he proceeded with 12 ſhips of the line, four frigates, and all the ſmall veſſels; and, on the evening of the 1ſt of April, anchored off Draco Point. On the morning of the 2d he made the ſignal to engage the Daniſh line, which was done with the greateſt promptitude. After a battle of four hours, the bomb-veſſel and gun-boats made their eſcape; but the other ſeventeen ſail, being the whole of the Daniſh line, to the ſouth of the Crown iſlands, were all burnt, ſunk or taken. Two of our ſhips unfortunately grounded, and a third to avoid it, was obliged to come to an anchor. This prevented the extenſion of the Britiſh lines, which might have ſilenced the batteries on the Crown Iſlands, and prevented a heavy loſs of men in ſome other ſhips.

As ſoon as the fire of the Daniſh line had ſlackened, and Lord Nelſon found that the ſhips and batteries of the enemy were in his power, excepting thoſe on the Crown iſlands, to the fire of which three of his own ſhips were expoſed, being aground; he retired to his cabin, and wrote a letter to the Prince Royal of Denmark, propoſing that a flag of truce ſhould paſs. Having

ing received a favourable anſwer, he went on ſhore himſelf, and, in a converſation with the Prince Royal, ſettled the terms of an armiſtice, which was continued from day to day till the 9th, when it was concluded between Admiral Parker and the Daniſh court, that it ſhould continue for fourteen weeks. In this terrible engagement two Britiſh captains loſt their lives, Captain Riou of the Amazon, and Captain Moſs of the Monarch. Beſides theſe, there were 18 officers and 234 privates killed, and 48 officers and 691 privates wounded. The loſs of the Danes was computed at 1800.

The Swediſh fleet left the port of Carlſcrona on the laſt day of March, but were prevented from joining the Danes by contrary winds. On the 22d of that month the Swediſh and Daniſh iſlands in the Weſt Indies were taken poſſeſſion of by a Britiſh ſquadron under Admiral Duckworth. On the 19th of April, Admiral Parker appeared with his fleet off the entrance of the harbour of Carlſcrona. He informed the Governor, that an armiſtice was concluded with Denmark, and required an explicit anſwer from his Swediſh majeſty, whether he meant to adhere to, or abandon the hoſtile meaſures which he had taken in conjunction with Ruſſia. To this the King of Sweden replied in an official note, that he would fulfil his engagements to his allies, but would liſten to propoſals made by deputies properly authorized for the regulation of matters in diſpute.

What contributed more than any thing elſe to ſettle all differences with the powers of the north, was the death of Paul, the emperor of Ruſſia, which happened on the night between the 22d and 23d of March. With regard to the manner of his death reports were various. It ſhall ſuffice to ſay, that in an Ukaſe publiſhed by Alexander his ſucceſſor, the next day, he is ſaid to have

have died ſuddenly by an apoplectic ſtroke. If the ſtroke was given by ſome human hand, it could not be wondered at, conſidering the manner in which he had acted, not only towards foreign nations, but alſo to his own ſubjects, and even his neareſt relations. To attempt to give a character of ſuch a man would be folly almoſt equal to that which appears to have influenced his whole conduct. His benignity to the Poliſh Inſurgents, the eagerneſs with which he joined the coalition againſt France, his ſudden deſertion of that cauſe, his alliance with Bonaparte, his unprovoked quarrel with Britain, his illegal ſeizure of Britiſh ſhips and goods, and his barbarous impriſonment of Britiſh ſeamen;—all together exhibit a ſeries of conduct ſo abſurd and inconſiſtent as cannot be accounted for by mere caprice, and therefore has not without reaſon been aſcribed to mental derangement. The continuance of ſuch a man, in the exerciſe of a deſpotic authority over ſuch a mighty empire, might have had the moſt direful effects. His death therefore, at this critical period, may be conſidered as a remarkable interpoſition of divine providence, in behalf of Britain, of Ruſſia, of Europe, and of mankind at large.

The new Emperor Alexander, Paul's eldeſt ſon, was proclaimed the day after his Father's death, and diſplayed a moderation and love of juſtice worthy of the high ſtation he occupies. He began by declaring for the laws and ſyſtem of his grandmother. The claim on Malta was given up; a ceſſation of arms was ſoon after agreed upon between the court of Ruſſia and Sir Hyde Parker. Lord St Helen's was diſpatched from the Britiſh court, with full powers to terminate the diſpute; and a treaty was ſigned at Peterſburgh on the 17th of June, which adjuſted, in an amicable manner, all differences

ferences between Great Britain and the northern Powers, as the court of Denmark acceded to it immediately, and that of Sweden ſoon afterward.

By this treaty, the right of belligerent Powers to ſearch the veſſels of neutral nations, which had been acknowledged for ages as a branch of the law of nations, was in general recognized, but it was limited to veſſels in the actual ſervice of Government; whereas formerly it had been exerciſed alſo by privateers and letters of marque. The articles ſtated in this treaty as contraband are exactly the ſame that had been declared to be ſuch by the treaty between Britain and Ruſſia of the 21ſt of February 1797; ſo that Britain made no new conceſſions on that head; though ſome things were omitted that had once been conſidered as contraband; ſuch as iron, copper, timber, pitch, tar, ſail-cloth and hemp.

It was among the firſt acts of Alexander's reign, to give orders that the Britiſh ſailors, and maſters of veſſels, ſhould be releaſed and conducted from thoſe places whether his father had ſent them to the ſeveral ports from whence they had been taken. And, before the negotiation was concluded, he removed the embargo on the Britiſh ſhips, and permitted them to proceed on their reſpective voyages. This was followed by a ſimilar act of generoſity on the part of Britain.

In conſequence of the treaty, the Daniſh troops were withdrawn from Hamburgh, the free navigation of the Elbe, the Weſer and the Ems, was reſtored. And the court of Berlin gave aſſurance, that as ſoon as certain arrangements ſhould be made for the quiet of Germany, the Pruſſian troops ſhould evacuate Bremen and Hanover. Britain on her part reſtored the Swediſh and Daniſh iſlands in the ſtate in which ſhe found them. And

when

when the embargo was taken off from the Daniſh ſhips in our ports, the expence both of laying it on and taking it off was defrayed out of the Britiſh treaſury.

In the beginning of the year 1801, while Britain was left alone in the ſtruggle againſt the enormous power of France, while her exiſtence was threatened by the formidable confederacy of the northern Powers above narrated, while the nation was preſſed by an uncommon dearth, and even threatened with famine, and while his Majeſty's precious life was endangered by a ſevere indiſpoſition; to crown the ſeries of calamities, the King's executive council was in the act of diſſolution. Whatever were the ſecret motives for the change of miniſtry which then took place, the reaſon publicly aſſigned for it was a difference ſaid to have ariſen between his Majeſty and them about what was termed catholic emancipation. It was ſaid, that miniſtry, anxious to carry into effect the Union of the two kingdoms had pledged their faith to the Iriſh Catholics, that, if they would not oppoſe that meaſure, a participation of all political privileges and power ſhould be granted them in common with Proteſtant ſubjects. But when this came to be propoſed in council, after the Union was accompliſhed, his Majeſty would by no means agree to it; conceiving it to be inconſiſtent with his coronation oath, by which he bound himſelf to maintain the church of England, as by law eſtabliſhed.

Whatever may be ſaid of the obligation of the coronation oath, it is preſumed, moſt Proteſtants will be of opinion, that his Majeſty was right in the main queſtion, whether it is conſidered in a political or a religious point of view. Already have the Catholics in Ireland more ſecurity both for their religious and civil rights, than many Proteſtants have, while the corporation and

and teſt acts continue in force. They are only excluded from ſitting in Parliament, and from holding about thirty public offices. To admit them to be on a level with the members of the church of England, would be to give a poſitive encouragement to Popery, which no conſcientious perſon would wiſh to give, to what he believes to be a falſe religion. And viewing the matter in a civil or political light, what ſecurity could the Proteſtants in Ireland have, either for their perſonal ſafety or for their property, if a popiſh antagoniſt or accuſer could call them before a popiſh judge, and the cauſe to be tried by a popiſh jury, ſummoned by a popiſh ſheriff. And, that all this might readily happen, will be evident, when we conſider, that the number of Proteſtants in that country, compared with that of Papiſts, is not more than one to five or ſix.

On this occaſion, Mr Pitt, Lord Grenville, Mr Dundas, and a number of others, reſigned the offices which they held. And, owing to the ſtate of his Majeſty's health, and other circumſtances, ſome time elapſed before the new arrangements could be ſettled. Mr Addington ſucceeded Mr Pitt, as firſt Lord of the Treaſury, and Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Eldon was appointed Lord High Chancellor, Lord St Vincent firſt Lord of the Admiralty; Lord Pelham was made Secretary of State for the home department, Lord Hawkeſbury for the foreign, and Colonel York Secretary at war. Similar changes took place in the inferior offices ſoon after.

The Parliament of the United kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, otherwiſe called *the Imperial Parliament*, met according to his Majeſty's Proclamation on the 22d of January. It was opened by commiſſion. The Commons choſe for their Speaker, Mr Adding-

ton, their late Speaker. The King met them on the 2d of February. In his ſpeech he took notice of the unfavourable courſe of events on the Continent, the outrages committed on Britiſh ſhips and Britiſh ſubjects by the Court of Ruſſia, the convention of the northern powers, and the ſteps he had taken in conſequence. He expreſſed his confidence in the ſupport of Parliament, in maintaining the naval rights of the empire. He recommended an attention to the improvement of the benefits of the Union, and to the beſt means of relieving his ſubjects from the preſſure of the preſent dearth, and preventing the recurrence of ſimilar difficulties for the future. And concluded by aſſuring them, that he would embrace the firſt opportunity of terminating the preſent conteſt with ſecurity and honour.

The addreſs was oppoſed with vehemence in both houſes by thoſe who had always formed the minority againſt Mr Pitt's adminiſtration. The new miniſtry had not yet been ſummoned, and, on account of the King's illneſs, the former Miniſters continued to hold the reins of government, and therefore to be the butt of oppoſition as before. It was argued by ſome, that the right which we claimed of ſearching neutral veſſels was unjuſt. Others admitted the juſtice of the claim, but thought this an improper time for the diſcuſſion, which might be ſuſpended without any evil conſequences, as it had been in the year 1780. None could palliate the outrageous conduct of Ruſſia, but it was ſaid that the war with Sweden and Denmark was of our own ſeeking. In the houſe of Lords, Earl Fitzwilliam moved a long amendment, expreſſive of a reſolution to make ſuch enquiries as ſhould enable them to give his Majeſty proper advice, and to ſupport him in carrying on the war, if peace was rendered unattainable, by the unreaſonable

unreaſonable pretenſions of the enemy; but expreſſing a hope, that his Majeſty would take ſuch meaſures as might prevent further waſte of the ſtrength and reſources of the nation, and ſecure a wiſe adminiſtration of affairs under preſent unexampled difficulties. The ſame amendment was propoſed in the other houſe by Mr Grey, and ſupported by ſimilar arguments.

On the other ſide it was ſaid, that the right of ſearching neutral veſſels was founded in the law of nations, and in the rights of nature; that it was neceſſary to aſſert it as the foundation of our commerce and wealth, and the great bulwark of our naval and military glory; and that it was better to meet the open enmity of the northern powers than to ſacrifice thoſe rights for the loſs of which their cloſeſt alliance could make no adequate compenſation. In both houſes the amendment was negatived by a great majority, and the original addreſs, an echo as uſual to his Majeſty's ſpeech, was carried without a diviſion.

On the 10th of February, Lord Darnley ha[illegible] intimated his deſign of moving, in the upper houſe, for an enquiry into part of the conduct of his Majeſty's miniſters, the Earl of Radnor moved that the houſe be called over on the 20th, that there might be a full attendance when Lord Darnley's motion ſhould be brought forward. But it was argued that a call of the houſe on ſuch an occaſion was unuſual, and muſt tend to raiſe a dangerous alarm in the nation. And the motion was rejected by 54 votes againſt 23.

On the ſame day, Mr Addington made a tender by letter to the houſe of commons of his reſignation of the office of their ſpeaker, on account of his promotion to an office incompatible with it. Mr Pitt, at the ſame time, intimated that he had his Majeſty's command to

ſignify that it was his pleaſure they ſhould chuſe another Speaker. And next day they made choice of Sir John Mitford accordingly. On the 16th Colonel Fullarton moved a vote of thanks to Mr Addington for his faithful attention to the duties of his office while Speaker of the houſe, which was carried without oppoſition.

On the 19th a motion was made in the Houſe of Commons by Mr Sturt, that the houſe reſolve itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe, to enquire into the cauſes of the failure of the expedition to Ferrol. Sir James Pulteney, who commanded that expedition, in a long ſpeech, vindicated both his own conduct and that of the miniſtry; ſo that, after ſome further altercation, the motion was negatived by 174 againſt 75.

On the 20th, Lord Darnley's promiſed motion was brought forward in the other houſe. He meant he ſaid to confine himſelf to the conduct of miniſters for the two or three laſt years. He loudly condemned the expedition to Holland, that to Ferrol, the attempt on Ca[illegible]the government's not confirming the treaty of El[illegible]ch, their conduct in the late overtures for peace, the ſubſidies paid to the emperor, the tameneſs with which the inſults of Ruſſia were endured, and the reſentment ſhewn againſt Sweden and Denmark. He found fault with the meaſures that had been taken to alleviate the diſtreſs of the poor, and ſaid they tended only to encreaſe it. He ſeverely blamed the government of Ireland, as the cauſe of all the treaſon and ſedition which had appeared in that country. Laſt of all, he complained of the change of the miniſtry. He ſaid it was probably a mere juggle; and if not, they had criminally deſerted their poſts in time of danger. And he concluded, by imploring their Lordſhips to agree to his motion, as they valued their property, their happineſs,

neſs, and their glory. It would be endleſs to repeat what was ſaid either for or againſt the motion. Many parts of the conduct of adminiſtration were ably vindicated. But the motion was chiefly reſiſted on account of the alarm that would be ſpread in the country by the enquiry propoſed, which yet could anſwer no good end. Upon the diviſion there were contents 28, non-contents 115, proxies included.

This did not diſcourage Mr Grey from bringing forward a ſimilar motion in the Houſe of Commons. On the 25th of the month he moved for an enquiry into the ſtate of the nation. Much was ſaid on this occaſion about the increaſe of the national debt, the bad management of the war, our want of ſucceſs in it, and the calamitous ſtate of the country, which was wholly imputed to the war. The ſituation of Ireland was ſaid to be alarming in the extreme. In anſwer to Mr Grey's ſtatements, Mr Dundas ſaid, that in order to ſhew how far this war had been 'diſaſtrous and diſgraceful,' he would ſtate its progreſs and ſucceſs. He mentioned our conqueſts in the different parts of the world, diſtinguiſhing the years in which they were made; amounting to twenty colonies, beſides Malta. He told the houſe, that ſince the commencement of the preſent war, we had taken or deſtroyed 80 ſail of the line belonging to the enemy, 181 frigates, 224 ſmaller ſhips of war, 743 French privateers, 15 Dutch, and 76 Spaniſh ſhips; while our loſs amounted only to 3 ſhips of the line, one of which we had re-taken, one ſhip of 50 guns, which we had alſo got again; and of the frigates which had been taken by the enemy, only the Ambuſcade remained in their poſſeſſion. He ſaid the failure of an expedition was neither a proof of want of capacity in miniſters, nor of want of ſucceſs in the war.

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Upon the whole, he concluded, that conſidering the uncommon difficulties with which we had to ſtruggle, it was a moſt glorious and ſucceſsful war. He vindicated the reſignation of the late miniſtry, and the characters of the preſent, and concluded, that it would be difficult to find a precedent for ſuch a vague enquiry as was now propoſed, which could not be of any advantage to the cauſe of the country. After a very long debate, the houſe divided; and there were for the motion 105, againſt it 291.

On the 27th of March, Mr Jones made a motion for a committee to enquire into the breach of the convention of El-Ariſch. To repeat the reaſonings on this ſubject would ſerve no end; as it is plain from the account already given, that no blame could be fixed on miniſters in that matter. The motion was negatived without a diviſion.

On the 22d of April, Mr Tierney made a motion for laying before the houſe a copy of a letter written by the Duke of York to the miniſter at war on the 28th of February 1800, relative to the preparations for the Dutch expedition; declaring that he meant to make it a ground of ſerious charge againſt the miniſter. After a debate of ſome length this motion alſo was rejected by a great majority.

As early as the 12th of March, the ſubject of the continuance of martial law in Ireland was introduced in the houſe of commons by Lord Caſtlereagh. He ſhewed from circumſtances relating to the late rebellion there, and alſo from the preſent ſtate of the country, that nothing leſs than this could give free courſe to juſtice, and ſave the country. He ſaid, though Jacobiniſm had been put down in the field, it continued to afflict the land in a manner deſtructive to public juſtice.

tice. The remaining diſturbances in Ireland were wholly directed, firſt, againſt the properties and perſons of the well-affected, and ſecondly, againſt the courſe of juſtice; ſo that unleſs perſons who were engaged in acts of rebellion could be brought to ſummary trial, the friends of government would be ſubjected to certain deſtruction. In aid of this meaſure he alſo propoſed, that the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act ſhould be continued in Ireland for the ſame period as martial law ſhould continue. Thoſe meaſures were vehemently oppoſed by that party who had always oppoſed the late adminiſtration; but they were ſupported, and his Lordſhip's ſtatement of facts was confirmed by all the Iriſh members, except Sir Laurence Parſons. And, after long debates, both bills were paſſed in both houſes. The period fixed for the continuation of both was three months, after the 25th of March.

On the 2d of April a ſelect committee was choſen by ballot in the houſe of commons, in conſequence of a meſſage from his Majeſty, whoſe health was now happily reſtored, for inquiring into the ſtate of Ireland, and the conduct of certain diſaffected perſons in Britain. Their firſt report was given in on the 14th; it ſtated, that the expiration of ſome ſevere laws that had been happily ſucceſsful in reſtraining the agents of ſedition, had encouraged them again to reſume their projects. They took occaſion from the preſſure of the times, to agitate the minds of the common people, and ſtimulate them to outrage, oppreſſion, and rapine. Mr Pelham, who brought in the report, therefore moved for leave to bring in a bill to revive, for a limited time, the acts for ſuſpending the habeas corpus, and for preventing ſeditious meetings. This motion, to be ſure, was

was oppoſed by the minority: But the great majority being convinced that the ſtatements contained in the report were juſt, the motion was carried, the bill was brought in, the blanks filled up with the words, 'During the war, and for one month after the ſigning of a definitive treaty of peace.' It was paſſed, and ſent up to the other houſe.

In the houſe of Lords a ſecret committee of 11 were choſen on the 16th of April, for taking into conſideration the report of the committee of the other houſe, and for inſpecting papers and documents reſpecting the proceedings of certain ſeditious perſons in Great Britain and Ireland. Their report was preſented to the houſe on the 27th. It ſtated, that by various artful manœuvres a ſociety had been formed in London, under the name of United Britons, upon a plan much reſembling that of the United Iriſhmen. The members were to be admitted by an oath; they had ſecret ſigns by which they could diſtinguiſh one another, and were to be ſubject to an *executive*, whoſe names and number were known only to a few. The principal ſubjects of diſcuſſion in their meetings were, plans for exciting inſurrections under pretext of the high price of proviſions, but intended for the ſubverſion of government and religion; and the means of procuring arms of the moſt deſtructive kind. In one meeting a plan had been formed for aſſaſſinating certain members of Parliament in their own houſes. Similar ſocieties were formed in various parts of the country. They correſponded with one another, and with two eſtabliſhed committees of traitors to the united kingdom, which exiſted in the dominions of the King's enemies. It was therefore the decided opinion of the committee, that the bill now referred to their conſideration ſhould paſs into a law; and

and it did paſs accordingly, after ſuch oppoſition as every meaſure was ſure to meet with that was approved by miniſtry.

On the 27th of May the Attorney-general roſe in the houſe of commons, and ſaid, that in conſequence of the earneſt recommendation of the committee of ſecrecy, he moved for a bill to indemnify all perſons, in ſecuring, impriſoning, and detaining individuals, under the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus act, ſince the 1ſt of February 1793. The principal thing inſiſted on as rendering this bill neceſſary was, that ſhould any action be brought againſt miniſters on that ſcore, they could not juſtify themſelves, without openly diſcloſing the means by which treaſonable acts were diſcovered, which would be altogether improper. There was much arguing againſt the bill in both houſes, and ſundry petitions againſt it were brought forward from individuals who thought themſelves hardly uſed by miniſters; but it paſſed by a conſiderable majority in both houſes. This debate being little connected with the war, it ſhall ſuffice to have given this general account of it. For the ſame reaſon the reader ſhall not be detained with any detail of the proceedings in parliament relative to the ſupplies, the dearth of proviſions, the affairs of India, and ſundry other ſubjects which came under diſcuſſion. On the 2d of July the ſeſſion was terminated by commiſſion, the King being then at Weymouth. The Lord Chancellor, in a ſpeech to both houſes, ſpake of the late victories both by ſea and land, as deriving peculiar value in his Majeſty's eſtimation, from their tendency to facilitate the reſtoration of peace.

As ſoon as Bonaparte had a proſpect of peace with Auſtria, he began to make preparations for an invaſion

of Britain or Ireland, or both. Camps were formed near the ſea-coaſt. One at Amiens, another between Bruges and Oſtend, a third between Gravelines and Dunkirk, and a fourth at Boulogne, which was to be the principal point from which the French were to paſs over into Britain. Rumours were induſtriouſly ſpread that an army of 25,000 would ſail from Breſt, another of 12,000 from the harbours of Normandy, and a third of 20,000 from thoſe of Flanders and Picardy; all eſcorted by a competent naval force. Ships of war, gun-boats, and other light armed veſſels were built, equipped and victualled. Beſides the combined fleets of France and Spain which lay in Breſt harbour, and amounted to 52 ſail of the line, there was a fleet of eight or nine veſſels under Admiral Gantheaume ready to ſail on ſome unknown expedition, and another of five ſhips of the line under Admiral la Touche. All was in motion from the mouth of the Scheld to the mouth of the Garrone.

Theſe preparations were beheld, and the threats of the enemy were heard, by the British government and people without diſmay, but not without indignation. From Caithneſs to the Land's End, all glowed with ardour to meet the French invaders, either by land or by ſea. Early in the year 1801 orders were iſſued by government, to conſtruct a number of gun-boats for the protection of the coaſt. In the end of July a circular letter was written, by the Secretary for the home department, to the Lords Lieutenants of Counties, intimating, that information had been received of the enemy's preparations and deſigns, and that it was his Majeſty's wish, that all corps of volunteer infantry and cavalry ſhould be kept in readineſs for ſuch immediate ſervice, agreeable to their reſpective engagements, as the

the exigencies of affairs might require. This requeſt was obeyed with the utmoſt alacrity through every part of the united kingdom. The volunteers were ready, either to march to any place where the enemy ſhould attempt a landing, or to do garriſon duty, if it ſhould be neceſſary to withdraw the regulars. When the preparations of the French were in ſuch forwardneſs as to menace an actual attempt, ſtrong picquet guards were ſtationed along the coaſt; inſtructions were iſſued reſpecting the ſtate in which the troops were to move at a moment's warning, and proper means were deviſed for preſerving the property of individuals.

The naval force of the kingdom was diſpoſed of in the moſt advantageous manner. Frigates and gun-boats were ſtationed in proper places along the Britiſh ſhore. A chain of Britiſh veſſels was ſtretched along the coaſt of France, on the Channel. After the return of the Baltic fleet, which inſpired our ſeamen and marines with the higheſt ſentiments of courage and honour, the Dutch fleet was held in check by a ſquadron of 12 ſail of the line beſides frigates, under Admiral Dickſon, and another under Admiral Greaves, of ſix ſhips of the line and ſome ſmaller veſſels. The harbour of Toulon was watched by Sir John Borlaſe Warren. Sir James Saumarez blockaded Cadiz with ten ſhips of the line, ſome frigates and ſmall armed veſſels; and Admiral Cornwallis, with a fleet of fifteen large ships of the line, beſides frigates and ſloops of war, cruiſed off Breſt. Beſides all theſe, we had a fleet in the Eaſt Indies and another in the Weſt, a fleet in the Red Sea, a fleet in the mouth of the Nile, and cruiſers and convoy ſhips in every direction, while a flotilla under Lord Nelſon, compoſed of different kinds of veſſels, guarded the Britiſh ſhore, from Land's end to Yarmouth, and ſtruck terror into that of France.

When Gantheaume's ſquadron was known to have ſailed, Sir Robert Calder was ſent after him with an adequate British force, but miſſing his tract went in queſt of him to the Weſt Indies. As ſoon as his real route was known, he was followed by the ſquadron under Sir John Borlaſe Warren, but with no better ſucceſs. He eluded the vigilance of Lord Keith and Sir Richard Bickerton. Though the object of his voyage was well known, and though the activity of our ſquadrons prevented the landing of his troops in Egypt, he ſailed about in the Mediterranean for ſix months, without being ſeen by any of them. In going out however towards Egypt, he had the good fortune to fall in with three British veſſels, which he captured. Two of them were frigates, and the other was a cutter of 12 guns, which was bringing home diſpatches from Lord Keith. In his return to Toulon in the month of July, he fell in with the Swiftſure, a British ship of 74 guns. Captain Hollowell, who commanded her, after a cloſe engagement of one hour and ſeven minutes, with three ships of the line and a frigate, was obliged to ſtrike his colours, but not till the ship was ſo much damaged, that the utmoſt exertions of the French carpenters and ſeamen could not put her in a condition to make ſail in leſs than ſix days.

Much about the ſame time, another of our ships of the line fell into the hands of a French ſquadron near Cadiz. On the 4th of July this ſquadron, conſiſting of three ſhips of the line, a frigate and ſome cutters, and commanded by Admiral Linois, lay at anchor off Algeziras. Sir James Saumarez being informed of this, went in queſt of them, with five ships of the line, a frigate of 40 guns, and a lugger of 16. Finding that the ships lay at some distance from the Spanish batteries he determined to attack them. On the morning of the 5th, the British ships advanced, with springs on their

their cables, in order to come to close action with the enemy; but the wind failing, the leading ship was obliged to cast anchor, and some of the rest were prevented from getting into action. The Hannibal of 74 guns, in attempting to get along-side one of the French ships ran aground. Admiral Saumarez, with his own ship, the Cesar and the Audacious, made every effort to run between the Hannibal and the enemy's batteries and squadron, to cover and enable her to extricate herself. But the wind did not favour this bold manœuvre; and finding himself only three cables length from one of the batteries, he was obliged to make sail and leave the Hannibal, which of course struck her colours.

The capture of the Swiftsure, by a whole squadron, had been a matter of triumph to the French; no wonder then that they considered the victory at Algeziras as the summit of naval glory. It was announced by an official note, to all the theatres in Paris, and circulated by telegraphs through all France, that three French ships had either taken or beaten back into Gibralter six English ships of the line; but not a word of the batteries on shore, nor of the failing of the wind, to which was chiefly owing the failure of what might well be called a most daring attack. The loss of the British squadron on this occasion was 375 men killed and wounded, of whom 143 were on board the Hannibal. That of the French, according to the accounts published at Madrid, amounted to 800.

But an end was soon put to the triumphing of the French by a second action, in which Sir James Saumarez obtained one of the most brilliant victories that adorn our naval annals. On the 8th of the month, the three French vessels that had been disabled in the action of the 5th, were re-inforced by a squadron of five

five Spanish ships of the line, and a French ship of 74 guns, besides three frigates and a number of smaller vessels. Admiral Saumarez determined if possible to prevent so powerful an armament from getting in to Cadiz. Understanding that they had sailed on the morning of the 12th, together with the Hannibal, which had been got off the shoal on which she struck, Sir James warped out of the mole of Gibraltar the same morning, with all the ships of his squadron, except the Pompee, which had not time to get in her masts. At eight in the evening, observing that they had cleared Cabrita point, he bore up to stand after them. At eleven the Superb, the leading ship, opened her fire close to the rear-most ships of the enemy. On the Admiral's coming up in the Cesar, and preparing to engage a three-decker, she was perceived to be on fire, and the flames having communicated to another of the enemy's ships to the leeward, both were soon in a blaze, and exhibited a most awful sight: as no assistance could be given to the enemy in such circumstances, the Cesar passed on to close with the ship which was engaged by the Superb; but, before she came up, that ship, the St Antonio of 74 guns, had struck her colours. The Admiral then made after the enemy, who with a press of sail, were standing out to the straits, but lost sight of them during the night. In the morning, the only ships in company were the Venerable and the Thames a-head of the Cesar, the Spencer coming up, and a French ship at some distance. By the failing of the wind, none of the British vessels could come up with her, but the Venerable Captain Hood, engaged her in a gallant manner, and had nearly silenced her, when his main-mast was shot away; and thus she was enabled to get off, without a possibility of following her.

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The connection between Great Britain and Portugal had been so close, so lasting, and so advantageous to both, that the French were accustomed to call it 'the Bri-'tish kingdom of Portugal.' A war against Portugal was therefore resolved upon by the French government, as a mode in which they might inflict a severe wound upon Britain. The Court of Spain, unwilling to be drawn into a contest with a kingdom so nearly connected with it, both by mutual interest and by the ties of blood, but unable to resist the sollicitations and threats of its terrible ally, was forced to declare war against Portugal on the 3d of March 1801. On the 20th of May a Spanish army of from 30 to 40 thousand, under the command of the Prince of Peace, entered the Province of Alentejo, the most fertile of the six into which Portugal is divided. As they met with very little resistance from the Portuguese, by the 6th of June they had possession of all the strong places, and all the magazines in the province. That same day Preliminaries of peace between Spain and Portugal were signed at Badajoz. The principal conditions were, that the town, fortress, and province of Olivenza were to be ceded to Spain, and the ports of Portugal were to be shut against the British.

But to this treaty Bonaparte refused his concurrence. And a French army of 30,000 men, under General Leclerk, having traversed the Pyrenees, entered Portugal on the 28th of June, and threatened both Oporto and Lisbon. In the mean time, it was the Policy of Britain to prevent the Portuguese colonies from falling into the hands of the enemy. A squadron was accordingly sent out with troops on board, to take the island of Madeira under the protection of his Britannic Majesty. It arrived at the place on the 23d of July. On the 25th the troops were all landed, and Colonel

Colonel Clinton, who commanded them, having satisfied the Governor of the friendly intention of his Majesty towards the Portuguese, was put in possession of the two forts, which command the Bay of Funchal, the capital of the Island.

The greatest exertions were made for raising and equipping a sufficient force for the defence of Portugal, which were not a little quickened by the arrival of a subsidy from England of 300,000l. yet their army did not amount to more than 25,000 men, including three regiments of French emigrants, and some corps of British cavalry. In these circumstances a negotiation was set on foot, and a treaty of peace was concluded at Madrid on the 29th of September. By this treaty no part of Portugal was to be given to Spain, but the interests of France were consulted in commercial regulations, and in the extension of French Guiana.

It is far from being probable that ever Bonaparte seriously intended to invade Britain. But he had his reasons for threatening it. By this means he not only hoped to distract the British government, and exhaust their resources, but also to keep in exercise a very numerous army of his own, who had now nothing to do on the Continent. He accordingly drew them to the coast, and made preparations for an expedition to Britain; but these preparations were never adequate to the object. Nor could a man of his penetration be so far intoxicated with his success on the Continent, as to venture upon such an attempt, when their ports were all blocked up by our navy, when our light ships of war insulted them on their own coasts, and attacked them every where, with almost constant success; so that they could make little more progress towards

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an invasion, than to smuggle a few gun-boats along their own coasts from one port to another.

A few examples will prove with what success our light armed vessels attacked the enemy.—On the 27th of May his Majesty's brig the Speedy of 14 four pounders fell in with some Spanish vessels, under convoy of a Xebec, which carried 36 guns, and 258 men. The Speedy captured nine ships of the convoy, and having sent men on board them, she had but 25 remaining out of 70 which was her original compliment. In this condition she was chased by the Xebec, and a warm engagement ensued, which did not last long; for the Xebec, after losing some of her hands, struck to the Speedy, and was carried along with the other prizes, and the prisoners into Minorca.

On the 11th of June, the boats of Sir John Warren's squadron cut out from the harbour of St Croix, eleven French ships, laden with provisions and stores for the Brest fleet. And on the 22d they destroyed a number of the enemy's vessels in Quimper bay.

On the 21st of July, some boats belonging to the squadron off Brest, entirely manned by volunteers, boarded and carried a national corvette mounting 20 guns, completely prepared for a voyage to St Domingo, with 350 men on board, in the bay of Cameret, in sight of the combined fleets of France and Spain. Though the attack was made in the night, the enemy as soon as they perceived the boats approaching, began a heavy fire, both from the ship and from the batteries on shore. The contest lasted two hours and a half, during which time such a carnage took place, that the deck of the French ship, when she struck, was literally covered with the mingled bodies of the contending parties. About the same time, some British frigates burned a mass of pitch and tar, on the coast

of Picardy; attacked a division of flat-bottomed boats on their passage from St Vallery to join the flotilla at Boulogne, took three of them, and blew up four.

At this time there were supposed to be 30 or 40 gun-boats and flat-bottomed boats at Calais, and another division of equal number in other places along the coast; but the chief place of rendezvous for the whole was Boulogne. The British Cabinet, weary of standing on the defensive, and merely watching the motions of the enemy, determined to resume offensive operations. Lord Nelson, who offered himself to that service, was appointed, with a flotilla of gun-boats, and other armed vessels, backed by two or three ships of the line, to attack the enemy's gun-boats in the harbour of Boulogne. He hoisted his flag on board the Leyden of 68 guns, sailed from Deal on the first of August, arrived off Boulogne on the 3d, and reconnoitred the enemy's position. Their vessels, consisting of six brigs, two schooners, and about 20 gun-boats, were ranged in a line, not half a mile from the shore, one half east, and the other west of the harbour's mouth.

The attack was made early in the morning of the 4th. His Lordship at first intended only to throw bombs, as this might be done with effect without coming within reach of the shot from the enemy's batteries. But, in order to induce the French to disclose their points, he sent his ships of war close in shore, in the face of the batteries, where they fired one broad-side, and then tacking round, fired the other. After which they sailed away, and loaded for another such discharge: But when the water fell, this was necessarily discontinued. The wind being favourable, the signal was made for the bomb vessels to weigh, and throw shells at the vessels of the enemy; but they had

had orders to do as little damage as possible to the town. Six of the French vessels were so much damaged as to be towed from the place of action. Five of them were got into the mole, the sixth was sunk, as were three others, and one bulged. But the wind shifting, the attack could not be continued, and the whole fleet was obliged to haul off.

A second attempt was made by his Lordship on the night between the 15th and 16th. For this purpose a force had been collected in the Downs, amounting to 70 vessels of different descriptions, having on board some thousands of marines. They were formed in four divisions, to storm the French line of boats, brigs and luggers. The men were armed with boarding-pikes, tomahawks and cutlasses only. Fire arms were prohibited, lest the enemy should be alarmed before the boats got up. They found the enemy's vessels defended by long poles, projecting from their sides, and headed with spikes of iron. They had a strong netting braced up to their lower yards, and were strongly fixed to the shore and to one another, with massy iron chains. This last circumstance was wholly unexpected, and contributed not a little to the failure of the enterprize.

The second division of British vessels, commanded by Captain Parker of the Medusa came first into action. The Captain himself ran alongside a large brig off the mole head, bearing the Commodore's pendent and attempted to board her, but was prevented by the strong netting above mentioned; and an instantaneous discharge from 200 soldiers on her gun-wall, laid the captain and two thirds of the men who were with him flat in the boat, either killed or wounded; and the boat would have fallen into the hands of the enemy if she had not been towed off by the honourable Mr

Cathcart, who commanded the Medusa's cutter.—It would answer little end to mention all the other manœuvres that took place during the action. It shall suffice to observe, that the other divisions succeeded no better than that under Captain Parker; as, besides having to struggle with the difficulties above mentioned, they were galled not only by the fire of the batteries but also by a fire of musquetry from an army, that extended for three miles along the shore; and who fired without hesitation, into their own vessels, after they were boarded by the British, and seemed to be in danger of falling into their hands.

About the break of day, orders were given to the officers commanding the different boats to return to their respective ships. And the British forces retired, bringing off with them only one French lugger, with 17 men, being about half the number with which she had been manned. In the first attack off Boulogne, all the loss sustained by the British, was only two men wounded. But in this second attack there were 172 killed and wounded. Among the latter was Captain Parker, who lost a leg and thigh. The loss of the enemy is not known. The French Admiral, in his dispatches, states it at only ten men killed, and thirty wounded. Whether that account is credible or not let the reader judge.

After this few acts of hostility took place between the two nations. On one side of the Channel some efforts were still made towards an invasion; and on the other side preparations were carried on for the defence of the coast. British fleets, squadrons, and cruizers, hung over and alarmed the coasts of France, Flanders, and Holland. French gun-boats continued to steal along the shore from one place to another, while flags of truce were daily passing amidst ships of war

war between Calais and Dover, and couriers between London and Paris. This continued to be the case till the 1st of October, when preliminaries of peace were signed at London by Lord Hawkesbury on the part of his Majesty, and M. Otto on the part of the French government. The publication of this intelligence in a Gazette extraordinary, the next day, was an agreeable surprise to the far greatest part of the nation; as the negotiation had been carried on with so much secrecy, that, though it had been in hand for almost nine months, few persons knew that such a thing was on the tapis.

The principal conditions of this treaty were, That all that Britain had taken from France was to be restored, and she was only to retain the island of Trinidad, which had been taken from the Spaniards in the West Indies; and the island of Ceylon, taken from the Dutch in the East. Egypt was to be restored to the Ottoman Porte, whose territories and possessions were to be preserved entire as before the war; as also were those of our allies, the Queen of Portugal and the King of Naples. Malta was to be restored to the Knights of St John of Jerusalem; but, that it might be independent of both parties, it was to be guaranteed and protected by a third power, to be agreed upon in the definitive treaty. The port of the Cape of Good Hope was to be open to both parties, who were to enjoy the same advantages there. France acknowledged the republic of the seven islands. The evacuations, cessions, &c. were to take place in Europe within one month, in America and Africa within three months, and in Asia within six months of the ratification of the definitive treaty. Prisoners on both sides were to be restored, and differences relative to their maintenance to be settled by the definitive treaty.

treaty. Prizes taken at sea were to be restored, if taken in the British Channel after 12 days, in the Mediterranean, or in the ocean as far as the Canaries, after one month, from thence to the Equator after two months, and in all other places after five months, computing from the exchange of the ratifications of the present articles. All sequestrations were to be taken off; the claims of individuals of the one country against those of the other, were to be decided by the competent tribunals; and this was to apply to the allies of the contracting parties. The fisheries on the coast of Newfoundland, and in the Gulph of St Laurence were to be restored to the same footing upon which they were before the war. Fortifications were to be delivered up in the state in which they were at the signature of the treaty. The inhabitants of the ceded countries who chose to remove out of them, were to be allowed three years, after the notification of the definitive treaty, to dispose of their effects; during which they should enjoy their property and the free exercise of their religion. The other inhabitants were not to be molested on account of their opinions, or their former attachments to either of the two powers. These preliminaries were to be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged in London within fifteen days. And plenipotentiaries were immediately to be named, who should repair to Amiens and conclude a definitive treaty.

Accordingly the Marquis Cornwallis was chosen by the British Court, and Joseph Bonaparte was nominated by the Chief Consul for that purpose. An ambassador likewise attended from the King of Spain, and another from the Batavian Republic. But it was the 27th of March 1802 before the definitive treaty could

could be signed. The principal differences between it and the preliminary treaty were the following: By the preliminaries, France had taken upon her to cede the islands of Trinidad and Ceylon to Great Britain, without waiting for the consent of their former owners; but in the definitive treaty, the King of Spain formally cedes and guarantees Trinidad to Britain, and the Batavian republic does the same with regard to Ceylon. The article respecting Portugal was modified and enlarged by a cession of a part of the Portuguese territory in Guiana to France. Commissioners were to be appointed to settle the compensation due for the maintenance of prisoners. The treaty was declared to be common to the sublime Porte, which was invited to accede to it as soon as possible. And both parties engaged to deliver up to justice persons guilty of murder, forgery, or fraudulent bankruptcy, if committed after the conclusion of the treaty.

The article which related to Malta was divided into thirteen subordinate articles. It was agreed that the Islands of Malta, Goza, and Comina, should be restored to the order of St John of Jerusalem, under the following stipulations: There was to be, in that order, neither a French nor an English tongue, nor was any person belonging to either of these powers to be admitted into the order. The Knights, whose languages should subsist after the exchange of the ratification of this treaty, were to return to Malta, hold a chapter of the order, and choose a Grand Master from among the natives of those nations whose languages were preserved, unless that election had already been made since the exchange of the preliminaries. A Maltese tongue was to be established, and one half of all employments under government was to be filled by native Maltese.

Of

Of these also was half the garrison to be composed; the other half to be raised in those countries which continued to possess tongues; the Maltese troops to have Maltese officers; and the nomination of all officers to belong to the Grand Master. The island was proclaimed neutral. The ports of Malta were to be open to all nations, the states of Barbary only excepted. And the above regulations were to be converted into standing laws of the order.

The British forces were to evacuate the island within three months, provided the Grand Master or his commissaries, should be present to take possession, and provided the Neapolitan troops after-mentioned should have arrived. The independance of Malta was to be guaranteed by France, Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia, and Prussia; all which powers were to be invited to accede to those stipulations. And the King of Naples was to be invited to send 2000 troops, natives of his states, to serve in garrison in the island for one year after its restitution to the Knights; and afterwards, till they be replaced by a sufficient force, furnished either by the order or by the guaranteeing powers.

It is evident that the terms of this peace were not such as Great Britain, in her circumstances, had a right to expect. Possessed of all that had belonged to the French in the East Indies, and of all their West India colonies, except St Domingo and Guadaloupe, she restored all without receiving any thing in return. They insisted upon the indivisibility of their Republic, and pretended to be bound by that absurd law which prohibited the alienation of any part of her territories. With equal reason might Britain have made a law annexing all her conquests to her own territories, and refused to part with any of them.

The

The stipulations concerning Malta carried absurdity in their face. What right had the contracting parties to new-model the constitution of the order of St John, without asking their consent, unless their having power to compel them gave them a right? Still less right had they to stipulate, that the other great powers of Europe should take part with them in guaranteeing the independence of Malta. They might invite those powers to accede to their stipulations, but it would have been difficult to force them to it; nor could it then be known whether they would do so or not. Yet it is plain, that without this every thing else in that article was nugatory; as upon this must depend the fulfilment of every other stipulation concerning Malta. There was nothing in the treaty to restrain the wild ambition of Bonaparte, or prevent those encroachments that he has made since that time upon the liberties and independence of other nations. Indeed it was not easy to foresee such things. Who could have imagined that France, by his arts, would acquire as much additional territory, and consequently as much increase of power, in one year of peace, as she had done in sundry years of a most successful war?

Though at the time when the preliminaries were signed few persons had any expectation of such an event, yet the news of peace was received in every part of Britain, as well as of France, with the greatest demonstrations of joy; as almost every one considered peace, even upon these terms, as better than the continuance of the war. But they who possessed any degree of political sagacity easily foresaw that such a peace could not be lasting. And, alas! the event has already proved that they were not mistaken.

May the happy period soon arrive, for which every sincere Christian will pray and hope, when men "shall beat their swords into plough-shares, and their "spears into pruning-hooks;" when "nation shall "not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they "learn war any more."

Hawick, *May* 23. 1803.

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